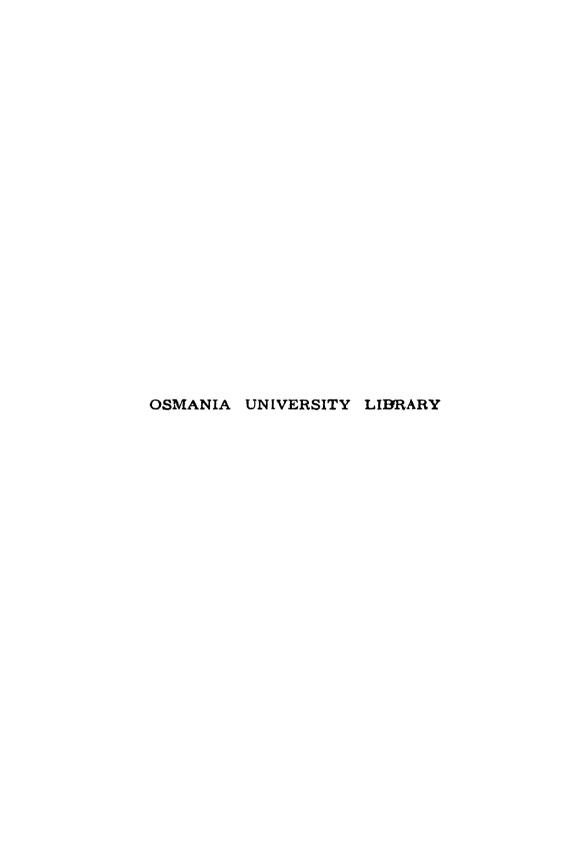
TIGHT BINDING BOOK

LIBRARY OU_162344 AWYERSAL AWYERSAL



QUP-2273-19-11-79-10,000 Copies.

OSMANIA UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

Call No. 572-954 Accession No. 32870

Author

Title

This book should be returned on or before the date last marked below

TRIBES IN ANCIENT INDIA

By

BIMALA CHURN LAW, M.A., B.L., Ph.D., D.Litt,

(iffith Prizeman and Sir Asutosh Mookerjee Gold Medalist, Calcutta University; Fellow, Royal Geographical Society of London; Fellow, Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal; Hony. Correspondent, Archaeological Survey of India; Hony. Member, Bhaudarkar Oriental Research astitute; President, Calcutta Geographical Society; Author, A History of Pali Literature, The I fe and Work of Buddhaghosa, Geography of Early Buddhism, Geographical Essays, Vol. I, Some Kadriya Tribes of Ancient India, Ancient Mid-Indian Kşatriya Tribes, Mahavira: His Life and Teachings, The Buddhist Conception of Spirits, Concepts of Buddhism, Historical Gleanings, A Study of the Mahavastu, A Manual of Buddhist Historical Traditions, Designation of Human Types, Debates Commentary, Women in Buddhist Literature, India as described in Early Texts of Buddhism and Jainism, Minor Anthologies of the Pali Canon (P.T.S.), Saundarananda-Kāvya, Dāthāvamsa, etc.; Editor, Buddhistic Studies, Thūpavamsa (P.T.S.), etc.; Joint Editor, Annual Bibliography of Indian Archaeology, published by the Kern Institute, Holland

FIRST EDITION

POONA



 \mathbf{TO}

THE SACRED MEMORY

OF .

MY BELOVED SON

GOPAL CHUNDER LAW

(January, 1920—September, 1941)

PREFACE

The present book is the outcome of my continued study of the history of tribes of Ancient India. In past years I wrote some books on tribes which have been well received by scholars and the present treatise is an improvement of them and I have added many new tribes to it. The object of the volume is to present a comprehensive and systematic account of some tribes inhabiting different parts of India, viz. north, south, east, west and central, who played an important part in the early history of India.

In preparing the volume, I have utilised original works in Sanskrit, Pali, Prakrit, Tibetan and Chinese and I have also derived help from other sources, such as epigraphy, archaeology, numismatics, and the itineraries of the Chinese pilgrims. In a work of this kind, legends cannot altogether be ignored as they very often contain a substratum of truth. In my treatment I have spared no pains to make full use of the materials that may be gathered from our ancient literature. Modern literature on the subject, too, has been duly utilised. I have tried as far as possible to separate legends from authentic history. But the task is fraught with difficulties and it is not always easy to draw the dividing line. It must, however, be admitted that the history of India is not complete without a thorough knowledge of the history of tribes. Hence an attempt has been made here to present an exhaustive and careful study of the ancient Indian tribes without parti pris and in a spirit of scientific research. I believe that this work will remove a long-felt want and will prove to be of some use to scholars interested in the history of ancient India.

I am grateful to the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona, for having kindly included it in their series.

43 Kailas Bose Street, Calcutta, September, 1943. BIMALA CHURN LAW

CONTENTS

					Page
PREFACE	• •	• •	• •	• •	v
BIBLIOGRAPHY				• •	xiii
	СН	APTER I			
THE KĀMBOJAS	• •	• •		• •	1
	CH.	APTER II			
THE GANDHĀRAS	• •	• •	• •	• •	9
·	CHA	APTER III			
THE KURUS	• •	• •	• •	••	18
	CHA	APTER IV			
THE PAÑCĀLAS	• •	• •	• •	• •	30
•	CH.	APTER V			
THE SURASENAS .	• •	• •	• •	••	39
•	CHA	APTER VI			
THE CEDIS	• •	• •	• •	• •	46
	СНА	PTER VII			
THE MADRAS	• •	• •	• •	• •	54
	CHA	PTER VIII			
THE MĀLAVAS	• •	••	• •	• •	6 o
	СНА	PTER IX			
THE ŚĀLVAS	• •	• •	• •	• •	66
	CHA	PTER X		•	
THE USINARAS	• •	• •	• •	• •	68

viii Contents

					Page
	СНА	PTER XI			
THE VÄHLĪKAS	• •	• •	• •	. ••	70
	СНА	PTER XII			
THE TRIGARTTAS	• •	• •			73
	CHAI	PTER XIII			
THE YAUDHEYAS		• •			<i>7</i> 5
	CHA	PTER XIV			
THE KEKAYAS		• •			77
	СНА	PTER XV			
THE ABHIRAS	• •	• •			<i>7</i> 9
	CHA	PTER XVI			
THE SIBIS		• •			82
	СНАІ	TER XVII			
THE DARADAS		• •			86
	СНАРТ	ER XVIII			
THE KĀRŪŞAS OR KARŪŞA	s	• •			87
	CHA	PTER XIX			
KULATAS OR KULŪTAS		• •			90
	СНА	PTER XX			
THE KULINDAS					91
	СНА	PTER XXI			
THE BARBARAS		• •			92
	СНАІ	TER XXII			
THE MURUNDAS		• •		• •	93
	СНАР	TER XXIII			
THE ĀRJUNĀYANAS AND T	HE PR	ĀRJUNAS		• •	95

CONTENTS

ix

	СНАР	ER XXIV			Page
THE AMBAŞTHAS					96
	CHAP'	TER XXV			
THE NIȘĀDAS		• •			98
	CHAPT	TER XXVI			
THE NIŞADHAS					100
	СНАРТ	ER XXVII			
THE KĀŚĪS					102
C	CHAPT	ER XXVIII			
THE KOŚALAŚ		• •			117
	CHAPI	ER XXIX			
THE VATSAS		• •			135
	CHAP'	TER XXX	•		
THE VĀŢADHĀNAS—TH	E ĀTREYA	STHE BHA	ARADVĀJAS	—THE	
LAMPĀKAS	• •	• •	• •	• •	151
	CHAPT	ER XXXI			
THE YONAS	• •	• •	• •	• •	153
	СНАРТ	ER XXXII			
THE KALINGAS	• •	• •	• •		158
	CHAPT	ER XXXIII		•	
THE ANDHRAS	• •	• •	• •		164
<u> </u>	CHAPT	ER XXXIV			
THE DAMILAS	••				168
	СНАРТ	ER XXXV			
THE SAVARAS		• •			172
American Company	CHAPT	ER XXXVI			•
THE MŪTIBAS					173

X CONTENTS

					Pa_i
	CHAPI	ER XXXVII			,
THE PULINDAS		• •		• •	17
	СНАРТ	ER XXXVIII			
THE KUNTALAS	• •	••	• •		171
	CHAP	TER XXXIX			
THE RĀṢŢRIKAS	• •	• •		,	178
	СНА	PTER XI,			
THE NĀSIKYAS		• •			179
	СНА	PTER XIJ			
THE ASMAKAS	• •	• •	• •		180
	CHAI	PTER XLII			
THE MÜLAKAS	• •	• •			184
	CHAF	TER XLIII			
THE CŌĻAS	• •	• •			186
	СНА	TER XLIV			
THE PĀŅŅYAS		• •	••		190
)	CHA	PTER XLV			
THE KERALAS OR CHER	AS	••	• •		193
-	CHAF	TER XLVI			
THE MAGADHAS		• •			195
	СНАР	TER XI,VII			
THE VIDEHAS ,	• •	••	• •		235
	CHAP'	TER XLVIII			
THE JÑĀTŖKAS		• •			243
	СНАР	TER XLIX			
THE ŚĀKYAS	• •	• •			245

CONTENTS	
----------	--

xi

	СН	APTER L			Page
THE MALLAS					257
	СН	APTER LI			
THE VANGAS			• •	• •	263
	CHA	PTER LII			
THE GAUDAS	• •	• •	• •	• •	270
	СНА	PTER LIII			
THE SUHMAS	• •	• •	• •		275
	СНА	PTER LIV			
THE PUNDRAS	• •	• •	• •		277
	CHA	APTER LV			
THE KIRĀTAS	• •	• •	• •	• •	282
- section - section -	СНА	PTER LVI			
THE PRĀGJYOTIŞAS	• •	• •	• •	• •	284
	CHA	PTER LVII			
THE BULIS—THE KÖLIYA	S—THE	MORIYAS—TI	HE BHAGGA	AS—THE	0
KĀLĀMAS	• •	• •	• •	• •	287
	CHAP	TER LVIII			
THE LICCHAVIS	• •	• •	• •	• •	294
	CHA	PTER LIX			
THE UTKALAS AND UDRA	.s	• •	• •	• •	333
	СНА	PTER LX			
THE AVANTIS	• •	• •	• •		337
	CHA	PTER LXI			
THE SINDHU-SAUVĪRAS	• •	• •	• •		344
-	CHAI	PTER LXII			
THE SURĀṢŢRAS	• •	• •	• •	• •	347

xii contents

					Page
	CHAPTER	LXIII			
THE ŚŪDRAS	••	• •	• •	• •	350
	CHAPTER	R LXIV			
THE LĀŢAS	• •	• •	• •		351
	CHAPTE	R LXV			
the Śūrpārakas		• •	• •		354
	CHAPTE	R LXVI			
THE AUDUMBARAS		• •			355
	CHAPTER	LXVII			
THE KĀKAS, KHARAPARIK	AS AND SA	NAKĀNIKAS			356
	CHAPTER	LXVIII			
THE MATSYAS		• •			357
	СНАРТЕ	R LXIX			
THE RAMATHAS	• •	• •			363
	CHAPTE	R IXX			
THE PĀRADAS	• •	• •			364
	CHAPTER	R LXXI			
THE BHOJAS	• •				366
•	CHAPTER	LXXII			
THE MEKALAS	• •	• •	• •	• •	374
	CHAPTER	LXXIII			
THE DAŚĀRŅAS	• •	• •		• •	375
	CHAPTER	LXXIV			
THE PĀRIYĀTRAS	• •	• •	• •	• •	378
,	CHAPTER	LXXV			
MISCELLANEOUS TRIBES	• •	• •	• •	• •	381
INDEX	• •	• •	• •		401

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abhidhānacintāmani (Hemacandra) Abhidhānaratnamālā Abhidharmakosa (Vasubandhu) Adhyātma Rāmāyana (Kālī Śankar Vidyāratna ed.) Ain-i-Akbari Aitareya Āranyaka (Anecdota Oxoniensia) Aitareya Brāhmana Alexander's Invasion (McCrindle) Altindisches Leben (Zimmer) Amarakosa Ancient and Hindu India (V. A. Smith) Ancient Geography of India by Cunningham (Ed. S. N. Majumdar) Ancient India (E. J. Rapson) Ancient India (S. K. Aiyangar) Ancient India as described by Ptolemy (Ed. S. N. Majumdar) Ancient India: its invasion by Alexander the Great (McCrindle) Ancient Indian Historical Tradition (F. E. Pargiter) Anguttara Nikāya (P.T.S.) Annals of the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute Antiquities of Kathiawar and Kacch (Burgess) Apadāna (P.T.S.) Archaeological Survey of India (Annual Reports) Archaeological Survey of South India (Reports) Arthaśāstra, Bārhaspatya (F. W. Thomas) Arthasastra, Kautilya (R. Shama Sastri Ed. and Tr.) Asiatic Researches Aśoka (V. A. Smith) Aśoka (Woolner) Aśokāvadāna Astādhvāvī, Pānini Atharva-Samhitā (Whitney & Lanman—Harvard Oriental Series) Atharvaveda Atharvayeda-Samhitā (Roth & Whitney—Harvard Oriental Series) Atthasālinī (P.T.S.) Avadāna Šataka Avadānakalpalatā (Bibliotheca Indica Series) Apastamba Srauta Sūtra Bālabhārata or Pracandapāndava of Rājasekhara (Nirnavasāgar Press ed.) Barāhasamhitā Barhut (Barua) Barhut Inscriptions (Barua & Sinha) Baudhāvana Šrauta Sūtra Bhagavadgitā Bhagavati Sütra (Dhanpat Singh ed.) Bhattikāvvam **Bombay Gazetteer** Book of the Kindred Savings, The (P.T.S.)

```
Brhatsamhitā (Kern)
 Buddhacarita (Cowell)
 Buddhavamsa and Cariyāpitaka (J.P.T.S., 1882)
 Buddhavamsa Commentary (P.T.S.)
 Buddhism (Copleston)
 Buddhist Conception of Spirits, The (B. C. Law, 2nd ed.)
 Buddhist India (T. W. Rhys Davids)
 Buddhist Records of the Western World (S. Beal)
 Buddhist Suttas (S.B.E., Vol. XI)
Calcutta Review
Cambridge History of India, The, Vol. I, Ancient India
Carmichael Lectures, 1918 and 1921 (D. R. Bhandarkar)
Catalogue of Coins (V. A. Smith)
Catalogue of Coins in the Punjab Museum, Vol. I (Whitehead)
Chinese Buddhism (Edkins)
Chronicles of the Kings of Kāśmīr (Stein)
Coins of India (Brown)
Coins of India (Cunningham)
Colas, The (Nilakanta Sastri)
Corporate Life in Ancient India (R. C. Majumdar)
Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum
Cūlavamsa (P.T.S.)
Daśakumāracarita
Dāthāvamsa (Ed. B. C. Law)
Der Vrätya: Untersuchungen Über die nichtbrahmanische Religion Altindiens
    (J. W. Hauer)
Dhammapada (Fausböll)
Dhammapada Commentary (P.T.S.)
Dharmaśāstra (Gautama)
Dharmasūtra
Dialogues of the Buddha, I-III (S.B.B., II-IV-P.T.S. publication)
Dictionary, Goldstücker
Dictionary of Pali Proper Names, I and II (G. P. Malalasekera)
Die Sk. Pr. Handschriften der Berliner Bibliothek (Weber)
Die Sociale Gliederung (Fick)
Digha Nikāya (P.T.S.)
Dipayamsa (Oldenberg)
Divyāvadāna (Cowell & Neil)
Dokumente der Indischen Kunst, Erstes Heft, Malerei, des Citra Laksana
    (Berthold Laufer)
Dynasties of the Kali Age (Pargiter)
Dynasties of the Kanarese Districts (Fleet)
Early History of India, 4th Ed. (V. A. Smith)
Early History of Kauśambi (N. N. Ghosh)
Early History of the Dekkan (R. G. Bhandarkar)
Early History of the Vaisnava Sect (H. C. Ray Chaudhuri)
Eastern India (Martin)
Epigraphia Indica
Essays, Analytical, etc. (Wilson)
```

Etude sur la Geog. Grecque (M. V. St. Martin)

```
Gārgī Samhitā
Gates of India (Holdich)
Gaudalekhamālā (Varendra Research Society)
Gaudavaho
Geographical Dictionary of Ancient and Mediaeval India (N. L. Dey)
Geographical Essays, I (B. C. Law)
Geography of Early Buddhism (B. C. Law)
Geschichte der Indischen Litteratur (M. Winternitz)
Geschichte des Buddhismus in Indien by Taranath (tr. into German by A. Schiefner)
Gokarna-Bhāgavata
Gopatha Brāhmaṇa (Ed. R. L. Mitra.—Bibliotheca Indica Series)
Grammar (Pānini)
Great Epic of India, The (Hopkins)
Guide to Nalanda, A (A. Ghosh)
Guide to Taxila, A (Sir John Marshall)
Gupta Coins (Allan)
Harivamśa
Harşacarita (Bāṇa)
Harsha (R. K. Mookerjee)
Heart of Jainism (S. Stevenson)
Hinduism and Buddhism, I-III (Sir Charles Eliot)
Hiranyakeśi Śrauta Sūtra
Historical Gleanings (B. C. Law)
Historical Inscriptions of Southern India (Sewell)
History of Ancient Sanskrit Literature (Max Müller)
History of Fine Art in India and Ceylon (V. A. Smith)
History of India as told by her own Historians (Elliot)
History of Indian Architecture (G. Fergusson)
History of Indian Literature (Max Müller)
History of Indian Literature (Weber)
History of Indian Logic (S. C. Vidyābhūṣaṇa)
History of Pāli Literature, A, I & II (B. C. Law)
History of Sanskrit Literature (Macdonell)
History of the Bengali Language (B. C. Majumdar)
Iconographie Bouddhique de l'Inde (M. Foucher)
Imperial Gazetteers of India
Index to the names in the Mahabharata (Sorensen)
India (Alberuni)
India as described in Early Texts of Buddhism and Jainism (B. C. Law)
India, What can it teach us? (Max Müller)
Indian Antiquary
Indian Coins (Rapson)
Indian Culture
Indian Historical Quarterly
Indica (Arrian)
Indiens Literatur und Cultur (Von Schroeder)
Indische Alterthumskunde (Lassen)
Indische Studien (Weber)
Indo-Aryan Races (R. P. Chanda)
Inscriptions of Aśoka (Bhandarkar and Majumdar)
```

```
Inscriptions of Bengal (Varendra Research Society)
 Inscriptions of the Early Gupta Kings (J. F. Fleet)
 Jaiminiya Upanişad Brāhmana
 Jaina Sūtras I & II (Jacobi, S.B.E. Vols. XXII & XLV)
 Jātaka (Cowell and Fausböll)—All the volumes
 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal (J.A.S.B.)
 Journal of the Buddhist Text Society
 Journal of the Department of Letters, Calcutta University
 Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland (J.R.A.S.)
 Journal of the U.P. Historical Society
 Kalpasūtra and Niravāvalī sūtra
 Kāmasūtra, Vātsāyana (Punjab ed.)
 Karatoyāmāhātmya
 Karmaśataka (M. L. Feer)
 Karpūramañjari (Sten Konow)
 Kāthaka-Samhitā 🗸
 Kathāsaritsāgara (Durgaprasad and Kaśināth)
 Kathāvatthu (P.T.S.)
 Kauśāmbī in Ancient Literature, M.A.S.I. No. 60 (B. C. Law)
 Kauśitaki Upanisad
 Kāvyamīmāmsā (Rājašekhara) (Gaekwad's Oriental Series)
 Khuddakapātha Commentary (P.T.S.)
Lalitavistara (Lefmann)
Lalitavistara (R. L. Mitra—Bibliotheca Indica Series)
L'art Graeco Bouddhique der Gändhära (J. Foucher)
Lāttāyana Šrauta Sūtra
Laws of Manu. S.B.E. (Bühler)
Lé Mahāvastu (Senart)
Lé Nepal (S. Lévi)
Life and Work of Buddhaghosa, The (B. C. Law)
Life of Hiuen Tsang (Beal)
Life of the Buddha, The (Rockhill)
List of Southern Inscriptions (Keilhorn)
Mahābhārata (Vaṅgavāsī ed.)
Mahābhārata (M. N. Dutta tr.)
Mahābhārata, Vanaparva (Mahārājā Burdwan's ed.)
Mahābhāsya (Patañjali)
Mahābodhivamsa (P.T.S.)
Mahāvaṃsa, P.T.S. (Geiger)
Mahāvamsa Tīkā (Sinhalese ed.)
Mahāvīra: His Life and Teachings (B. C. Law)
Majjhima Nikāya (P.T.S.)
Mānasi J
Mānava Dharmašāstra (J. Jolly)
Manimēkhalai
Mañjuśrimūlakalpa (Ganapati Sāstri ed.)
Manorathapurānī (P.T.S. and Sinhalese eds.)
Manual of Buddhism (Spence Hardy)
Manual of Indian Buddhism (Kern)
```

```
Manusamhitā
Mārkandeya Purāna (Pargiter)
Memoirs of Central India (Malcolm)
Milindapaño (Trenckner)
Minor Anthologies of the Pali Canon, The (B. C. Law-S.B.B., P.T.S. publication)
Modern Review
Mudrārākṣasa (Viśākhadatta)
Mysore and Coorg from Inscriptions (Rice)
Natural History (Plin/y)
Nepāl Vamśāvalī
Niddesa (P.T.S.)
Nirukta (Yāska)
Numismatic Chronicle
Old Brāhmī Inscriptions in the Udayagiri and Khandagiri Caves (B. M. Barua)
On Yuan Chwang's Travels in India (T. Watters)
Origin and Development of the Bengali Language, The (S. K. Chatterjee)
Origin of the Bengali Script, The (R. D. Banerjee)
Pāli Grammar by Kaccāyana (Ed. S. C. Vidyābhūsana)
Pañchālas and their capital Ahichchhatra, M.A.S.I. No. 67 (B. C. Law)
Pānini (Goldstücker)
Papañcasūdani (P.T.S.)
Paramatthadipani on the Petavatthu (P.T.S.)
Paramatthadipani on the Theragatha (P.T.S.)
Pariśistaparvan (Jacobi)
Pāṭaliputra (Manoranjan Ghosh)
Periplus of the Erythraean Sea, The (Schoff)
Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed. (H. C. Ray Chaudhuri)
Prabodhacandrodaya
Prācīna Mudrā (R. D. Banerjee)
Pratijnāyaugandharāyana (Bhāsa)
Psalms of the Brethren (P.T.S.)
Psalms of the Sisters (P.T.S.)
Public Administration in Ancient India (P. N. Baneriee)
Pūjāvalīya (Sinhalese ed.)
Purānas—all.
Questions of King Milinda (S.B.E.).
Raghuvamśa J
Rājataranginī (Stein)
Rājagrha in Ancient Literature, M.A.S.I. No. 58 (B. C. Law)
Rājgīr and its neighbourhood (D. N. Sen)
Rāmacarita
Rāmāyaṇa (Bombay and Vafigavāsī eds.)
Rāmāyana (Griffith's tr.)
Ratnāvalī and Privadaršikā (Harsa)
Records of the Buddhist Réligion (I-tsing)
Rgveda (Wilson's tr.)
Rgveda Brāhmana (Keith)
Romantic Legend of Sakya Buddha, The (Beal).
```

```
Samantapāsādikā (P.T.S.)
Samhitopanisad Brāhmana
Samyutta Nikāva (P.T.S.)
Sānkhāyana Āranyaka (Keith)
Sanskrit-English Dictionary (Monier-Williams)
Sanskrit Texts (Muir)
Sāratthapakāsinī (P.T.S.)
Sāsanavamsa (P.T.S.)
Satapatha Brāhmana (Eggeling, S.B.E.)
Saundarananda-Kāvya (B. C. Law's tr.)
Selections from the Mahābhārata (Johnson)
Shan-hsien-lü
Sirikalpasütranı (Bhavnagar ed.)
Social Organisation in North-East India in Buddha's time (Fick)
Some Ksatriya Tribes of Ancient India (B. C. Law) /
South Indian Epigraphy, Annual Reports of
South Indian Inscriptions (Hültzsch)
Śrāvastī in Indian Literature, M.A.S.I., No. 50 (B. C. Law)
Sthavīrāvalī-charita (Hemchandra)
Studies in Indian Antiquities (H. C. Ray Chaudhuri)
Study of the Mahavastu, A (B. C. Law)
Successors of the Sātavāhanas (D. C. Sircar)
Sumangalavilāsinī (P.T.S.)
Suttanipāta (P.T.S.)
Suttanipāta Commentary (P.T.S.)
Svapnavāsavadattā (Bhāsa) (Sukhthankar's tr.)
Taittirīva Brāhmana
Taittirīva Samhitā
Thera-Therigatha (P.T.S.)
Therigatha Commentary (P/T.S.)
Thūpavamsa (P.T.S.)
Travels of Fā-Hien (Legge)
Travels of Fā-Hien and Sung-Yun (S. Beal)
Udāna (P.T.S.)
Udāna Commentary (P.T.S.)
Udāna-vannanā (Siamese ed.)
University of Nālandā, The (H. D. Sankalia)
Upaniṣads—all
Uttarādhyayana Sūtra (J. Charpentier)
Uvāsagadasāo (Hoernle)
Vaijavantī (G. Oppert)
Vaisnavism, Saivism and Minor Religious Systems (R. G. Bhandarkar)
Vājasaneyī-Samhitā
Vamsatthapakāsinī (P.T.S.)
Vāngālār Itihāsa (R. D. Banerjee)
Veda of the Black Yajus' School (Keith)
Vedic Index (Macdonell and Keith)
Vedic Mythology (Macdonell)
Vimānavatthu Commentary (P.T.S.)
Vinaya Pitaka (Oldenberg)
```

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Vinaya Texts, I-III (S.B.E.) Viṣṇudharmottara Mahāpurāṇa Viṣṇupurāṇa (Wilson's ed.) Vividha-tīrtha-kalpa (Singhee Jaina Granthamālā Series)

Zur Litteratur und Geschichte des Weda (Roth)

CHAPTER I

THE KAMBOJAS

The Kāmbojas appear to have been one of the early Vedic The earliest mention of them occurs in a list of ancient Vedic teachers given in the Vamśa Brāhmana of the Sāmaveda, where we find one of the teachers to be Kāmboja Aupamanyaya, i.e., Kāmboja, the son of Upamanyu (Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa, edited by Pundit Satyavrata Sāmaśramī). We are told that the sage Ānandaja received the Vedic learning from Samba, son of Sarkaraksa, and also from Kāmboja, son of Upamanyu. It is interesting to note that he received this instruction from two teachers, whereas one teacher only was the usual rule. From the order in which the names are given, Sāmba appears to have been his first teacher, and the Kāmboja teacher must have been approached later, perhaps because he was distinguished for special pre-eminence in Vedic learning. We lay stress on this fact because it shows that the Kāmbojas, in early Vedic times, must have been a Vedic Indian people, and not Iranian, as has been supposed by several scholars. From the list of teachers we also find that both the teachers of Ānandaja had received their education in Vedic lore from the same sage, viz., Madragāra Saungāyani, whose name shows that he belonged to the Madra people. This connection between the Madras and the Kāmbojas is natural, as they were close neighbours in the N.W. of India.

The Kāmbojas are not mentioned in the *Rgveda* itself, but indirect evidence may help to justify the assumption that they were included among the Vedic Aryans in the Rgvedic era. A sage Upamanyu is mentioned at *Rgveda*, I, 102, 9, and it is not unreasonable to conjecture that he may have been the father of the Kāmboja teacher of the *Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa* list. Such a possibility is suggested by Zimmer.²

The next important mention of the Kāmbojas is in a passage of Yāska's *Nirukta* (II, 8), which shows that they spoke a dialect of the Vedic tongue differing in some respects from the standard language, which in Yāska's time was apparently in language of the Madhyadeśa, the region around the Ganges-Jumna Doab. The Kāmbojas appear from Yāska's remarks to have been a Vedic people who had retained

¹ Vedic Index, I, p. 138.

² Altindisches Leben, p. 102.

the original sense of an ancient verb (śavati) while it was lost among other sections of the same people, who were separated from them by geographical barriers. Sir George Grierson, however, deduces from Yāska's remarks that, as śavati is an Iranian, not a Sanskrit, word, the Kāmbojas cannot have been Indo-Aryans. He holds that they either spoke Sanskrit with an infusion of Iranian words to which they gave Indian inflexions, or else spoke a language partly Indo-Aryan and partly Iranian.¹

Yāska also attempts a (pseudo-) philological explanation of the name Kāmboja, by connecting it with Kambala, 'blanket', and further with the root *Kam*, to love, enjoy. He suggests that the Kāmbojas may have been so called because they were Kamanīyabhojas or 'enjoyers of pleasant things', and adds that a Kambala is a pleasant thing. Though we cannot take this etymology seriously, there can be no doubt that the warm blanket, Kambala, was a pleasant thing to a people living in the rigorous climate of the

N.W. highlands.

The Kambalas or blankets manufactured by the Kāmbojas are referred to in the *Mahābhārata*, which tells us that at the great Rājasūya sacrifice, the Kāmboja king presented to Yudhiṣthira 'many of the best kinds of skins, woollen blankets, blankets made of the fur of animals living in burrows in the earth, and also of cats—all inlaid with threads of gold '(Sabhāparvan, Chap. 51, 3); and again, 'The king of Kāmboja sent to him hundreds and thousands of black, dark and red skins of the deer called Kadali, and also blankets (Kambala) of excellent texture' (Sabhāparvan, Chap. 48, 19).

The next mention of the Kāmbojas is made by Pānini. His Sūtra (IV, 1, 175) lays down the rule that the word Kāmboja denotes not only the Kāmboja country or tribe, but also the Kāmboja king.

With regard to the location of Kāmboja, Rhys Davids says that it was a country in the extreme N.W. of India, with Dvārakā as its capital.² Dr. S. K. Aiyangar places it in the territory answering to the modern Sindh and Gujarat ³ and Dr. P. N. Banerjee too in his *Public Administration in Ancient India* (p. 56) assigns Kāmboja to a country near modern Sindh. Both these writers agree with Prof. Rhys Davids in locating the capital at Dvārakā. Kāmboja is mentioned in *Petavatthu* (II, 9, 1), but from the commentary on that passage (*PvA*, 111) it appears that Dvārakā is *not* its capital.⁴ V. A. Smith seems to place the Kāmbojas among the mountains either of Tibet or of the Hindu Kush. He further says that they

¹ J.R.A.S., 1911, pp. 801-2.

² Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 28.

8 Ancient India, p. 7.

⁴ See also B. C. Law, Buddhist Conception of Spirits (2nd Ed.), p. 102.

are supposed to have spoken an Iranian tongue (Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 193 and f.n. 1). According to McCrindle, Kamboia was Afghanisthan, the Kaofu (Kambu) of Hsüan Tsang (McCrindle, Alexander's Invasion, p. 38). In the Vedic Index, it is stated that the Kāmbojas were settled to the N.W. of the Indus and were the Kambujiya of the old Persian inscriptions (see also D. R. Bhandarkar, Carmichael Lectures, 1918, pp. 54-5). According to Sir Charles Eliot (Hinduism and Buddhism, Vol. I, p. 268), the Kāmbojas were probably Tibetans; in another volume of the same work, he calls them an ambiguous race who were perhaps the inhabitants of Tibet or its border lands. M. Foucher in Iconographie Bauddhique (p. 134) points out that the Nepalese tradition applies the name Kambojadeśa to Tibet. Doubtful would be the attempt to connect Cambyses (O.P. Ka(m)bujiya) with the frontier people of Kāmboja.² Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhuri ³ points out that from a passage of the Mahābhārata we learn that a place called Rajapura was the home of the Kambojas (Mbh., VII, 4-5, 'Karna Rājapuram gatvā Kambojā nirjitāstyayā'). The association of the Kāmbojas with the Gāndhāras enables us to identify this Rājapura with Rājapura of Hsüan Tsang (Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. I, p. 284), which lay to the S. or S.E. of Punach.4

Pāṇini belonged to the north-west quarter of India and hence had an accurate knowledge of the customs and dress of the Kāmbojas. The Mayūravyamśakādigana of Pānini speaks of the Kāmbojas as munda or shaven-headed. Apparently the Kambojas were in the habit of completely shaving their heads, as would also appear from a passage quoted by Raghunandana from the Harivamśa and pointed out by Max Müller 5: 'The Sakas (Scythians) have half their head shorn, the Yavanas (Greeks?) and Kāmbojas the whole, the Pāradas (inhabitants of Paradene) wear their hair free, and the Pahlavas

(Persians) wear beards'.

Coming to the Pāli Buddhist literature we find the Kāmboja country spoken of several times in the canonical texts as one of the sixteen great States (Mahājanapadas) that were most prominent in India about the time of the Buddha (see, e.g. Anguttara Nikāya, Vol. I, p. 213; Vol. IV, p. 252-6).

² Cambridge History of India, Ancient India, p. 334, f.n.

⁵ History of Ancient Sanskrit Literature, p. 28.

³ Political History of India from the accession of Parikshit to the coronation of Bimbisāra, p. 77.

⁴ R. D. Banerjee refers to a Kāmboja or Cambodia on the east side of Samatata (Bengal), which must be identical with Sir Charles Eliot's Camboja, as distinct from Kamboja.

In the Harivamśa, we find that the people of Kāmboja were formerly Kṣatriyas. It was Sagara who caused them to give up their own religion (Harivamśa, 14). From verses 43 and 44 of Chap. X of the Manusamhitā, we find that the Kāmbojas, Sakas, Yavanas, and other Kṣatriya tribes were gradually degraded to the condition of Sūdras on account of their omission of the sacred rites, and of their not consulting the Brahmins. Kauṭilya's Arthaśāstra states that the corporations of warriors (kṣatriya-śrenī) of Kāmboja and other countries lived by agriculture, trade and profession of arms (Vārtāśastropajīvin).

The horses of Kāmboja were famous throughout all periods of Indian history. In the Sumangalavilāsinī, Kāmboja is spoken of as the home of horses (Kāmbojo assānam āyatanam).² The Mahābhārata is full of references to the excellent horses of Kāmboja. In the Sabhāparvan (51, 4), we read that the king of Kāmboja presented to Yudhisthira three hundred horses of variegated colours, speckled like the partridge and having fine noses like the śuka bird. In the great battle of Kuruksetra, the fast and powerful horses of Kāmboja

were of the utmost service.3

The Jaina Uttarādhyayana Sūtra ⁴ tells us that a trained Kambojan horse excels all other horses in speed, and no noise can frighten it. In the Campeyya Jātaka ⁵ we read that a king of Kāśī, being requested by a Nāga king to visit his abode, ordered well-trained Kambojan horses to be yoked to his chariot. ⁶ Viṣṇuvardhana, who later became ruler of Mysore, owned Kambojan horses, which were evidently much coveted for their speed. ⁷ The Aṭṭḥakathā on the Kunāla Jātaka furnishes us with the interesting piece of information that the Kāmbojas were in the habit of capturing horses in the forest by tempting them into an enclosed space by means of aquatic plants which they smeared with honey. ⁸

In the Raghuvamśa, Kālidāsa makes Raghu meet the Kāmbojas after defeating the Hūṇas on the bank of the Vaṅkṣū or the Oxus. The Kāmbojas, being unable to meet the prowess of Raghu, bowed low before him, just as their walnut trees were bent down on account of Raghu's elephants being tied to them. An immense treasure including excellent horses was offered as tribute to Raghu by the

Kāmbojas.9

7 S. K. Aiyangar, Ancient India, p. 236.

¹ Arthaśāstra, trsl. by Shāma Shāstrī, p. 455.

² I, 124.

³ See, e.g. Mbh., Bhīṣmaparvan, 71, 13; 90, 3; Droṇaparvan, 22, 7; 22, 22-3; 22, 42; Karṇaparvan, 38, 13; Sauptikaparvan, 13, 12.

⁴ Jaina Sūtras, S.B.E., pt. II, p. 47.

Jaina Suras, S.B.E., pt. 11, p. 47.
 Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. IV, p. 464.

⁶ See also Mahāvastu, II, p. 185.

⁸ Jātaka, V, 446.

⁹ Raghuvamśa, IV, 69-70.

The Kāmbojas occupy a prominent place among the Kṣatriya tribes of the *Mahābhārata*. In the geographical enumeration of the peoples of India, the Kāmbojas are located in the north.¹ They were the allies of Duryodhana, and by their bravery, and especially through the prowess of their king Sudakṣiṇa, they rendered great service to the Kuru side in the Kurukṣetra war. Sudakṣiṇa was one of the few Mahārathas or great heroes in the field.

Drupada advised Yudhiṣṭhira to ask the Kāmbojas and other tribes on the western frontiers for their assistance, but the Pāṇḍavas were not able to obtain their alliance. Duryodhana was more successful, perhaps through his kinship with the neighbouring Gāndhāras, and later boasted to the Pāṇḍavas of his alliance with the Kāmbojas and other northern peoples. He gives an important place to the Kāmbojas by mentioning them together with the greatest heroes on his side (see Mbh., Chap. 160, 40). Bhīṣma too extols the prowess of the Kāmboja king, Sudakṣiṇa, of whom he says, 'In my opinion Sudakṣiṇa of Kāmboja is equal to one Ratha. The best of the chariot-warriors under him are strikers with fierce force. The Kāmbojas, O great king, will cover the land like a swarm of locusts' (Mbh., Udyogaparvan, Chap. 165, 1-3).

When the Kaurava army took up their position on the field, the Kāmbojas occupied the van of Duryodhana's army, along with the home forces of the Pauravas themselves. We are told: 'The Pauravas, the Kalingas and the Kāmbojas with their king Sudakṣiṇa and Kṣemadhanvā and Salya took up their positions in front of

Duryodhana' (Mbh., Bhīṣmaparvan, Chap. 17, 26-7).

The Kāmbojas appear to have been consistently in the thickest of the fight.⁴ Their king Sudakṣiṇa was eventually killed in a duel with Arjuna. The verses which describe him as he lay slain on the battle-field are worth quoting for their poetic imagery: 'Like a charming Karṇikara tree,—which in the spring grows gracefully on the top of a hill, with beautiful branches,—lying in the grove when uprooted by the tempest, the prince of the Kāmbojas, accustomed to sleep on the most precious bed, lay lifeless on the bare ground. Adorned with precious ornaments, graceful, possessing eyes of coppery hue, wearing around his head a tiara of gold radiant like the flames of fire, the mighty armed Sudaksiṇa, prince of the Kāmbojas, felled by Pārtha with his arrows, and lying dead on the ground, appeared beautiful like a charming hill with a flat summit'.⁵

⁵ Mbh., Dronaparvan, Chap. 92, 61-75.

¹ Mbh., Bhīṣmaparvan, Chap. 9. ² Mbh., Udyogaparvan, 18.

^{3 &#}x27;Udīcya Kāmbojasakaih Khasaisca' (Mbh., Udyogaparvan, Chap. 160).
4 See Rhīsmabarvan, Chap. 45, 66-8: Chap. 56, 7: Chap. 75, 17: Chap. 87.

⁴ See Bhīşmaparvan, Chap. 45, 66-8; Chap. 56, 7; Chap. 75, 17; Chap. 87, 10; also Dronaparvan, Chap. 7, 14; 19, 7.

In the fierce battle that ensued, when Sātvaki, urged on by Yudhisthira, was following in the track of Arjuna, the Kāmbojas arrested his progress. Then, we are told, Sātvaki slew thousands of the Kāmbojas, worked havoc among them, and pressed onward.1

Again, when Karna assumed the leadership of the Kuru army. the Kāmbojas were there taking an active part by his side 2; and even after Sudaksina's younger brother had laid down his life for the cause. 8 we still hear of the Kambojas delivering an attack on Arjuna. 4

We thus find the Kāmbojas leading a large army to the field of Kuruksetra and laying down their lives like the valiant Ksatriyas. Afterwards it appears from the later sections of the Mahābhārata, viz. the Sānti and Ānuśāsanika parvans, that their country had been overrun by barbarous hordes, so that the ancient Ksatriya population was overwhelmed, and we find the Kambojas ranked with the Yavanas and looked down upon as one of the barbarous peoples. Thus a verse of the Santiparvan enumerates the Kambojas along with many peoples not included in what we may call 'Indo-Aryan society', 5 and in another chapter they are placed among the barbarous peoples of the Uttarapatha (northern regions).6 The Anusasanikaparvan (33, 21) speaks of the Kāmbojas as having been degraded to the rank of Sudras for want of Brahmanas in their country. These passages go to show that at the time when these parvans were added to the Epic, the Kāmbojas were losing touch with Brahmanical society, probably owing to admixture with uncivilised invaders from the North.

Turning to the other great epic, we read in the $\bar{A}di$ $K\bar{a}nda$ of the Rāmāyana that the Kāmbojas were created by the divine cow Sabalā, at the request of Vashistha (20-24). The Kiskindhyā Kāṇḍa (Chap. 43) tells us that Sugrīva sent a monkey named Sugrīva to North India in search of Kāmboja and other countries (11-12).

The Vāyupurāna informs us that after killing the Haihayas, King Sagara was engaged in annihilating the Kambojas, Sakas, Yavanas, Pahlavas and others. All these tribes, however, secured the aid of Vashistha, Sagara's spiritual preceptor. Listening to the words of Vashistha, Sagara set the Kambojas free after having completely shaven their heads (Vangavāsī Edition, Chap. 88). It is stated in the Harivamśa that the Iksvāku King Vāhu was dethroned by Kāmbojas and others (Chaps. 13, 14).

¹ Mbh., Chap. III, 59-60; Dronaparvan, 119, 51; 118, 9.

² Ibid., Karnaparvan, Chap. 46, 15.

<sup>Ibid., Karnaparvan, Chap. 56.
Ibid., Chap. 88. See also Sālyaparvan, Chap. I, 26; Chap. 8, 25.</sup> 6 Ibid., 207, 43-4. ⁵ Ibid., Sāntiparvan, Chap. 65, 14.

In the *lātakas* we read that the Kāmbojas were a N.W. tribe who were supposed to have lost their original Arvan customs and to have become barbarous.1 In the Bhuridatta Jataka we find that many Kāmbojas who were not Arivas falsely held that peoples were purified by killing insects, snakes, frogs, etc.2 It is stated in the Sasanavamsa 3 that in the 235th year of the Buddha's Parinibbana, the Thera Maharakkhita went to the Yonaka province and established the Buddha's doctrine in Kāmboja and other places. In other passage of the $S\bar{a}sanavamsa$, we find the son of the king of Kāmboja referred to as a Buddhist monk, Tāmalinda, who sailed from Ceylon to India with the Thera Uttarājīva.4 Also in the Sāsanavamsa, we read of Sirīhamsva, who came from Kāmboja and conquered the city of Ratanapura. Fearing the increasing power and influence of the Buddhist monks, which might become a danger if they turned their minds to secular objects, he determined on a wholesale slaughter. He invited all the great theras of Jeyyapura, Vijayapura and Ratanapura together with their disciples, to meet him in the forest Ton-bhi-luh; and there he caused them, to the number of 3,000, to be surrounded and slain by his army. shrines were demolished and books burnt at the same time.⁵

The Emperor Aśoka sent missionaries to the nations on the borders of his empire, viz. the Kāmbojas, Yavanas, etc., with the object of converting them to Buddhism. He celebrates their conversion to the true Dhamma in Rock Edict XIII (see V. A. Smith, Aśoka, p. 168); while Rock Edict V tells us that Censors were created by Aśoka for the establishment of the law of piety, for the increase of the law, and for the welfare and happiness of the Kāmbojas, Gāndhāras and others living on the W. frontier of his dominions.

In the ninth century A.D. the Kāmbojas are said to have been defeated by Devapāla, the great king of the Pāla dynasty of Bengal.⁶ But during the latter part of the 10th century the tables were turned, and the rule of the Pāla kings of Bengal was interrupted by the Kāmbojas, who set up one of their chiefs as king.⁷ In a place called Vānagarh in Dinājpur, Bengal, mention is made of a certain king of Gauḍa, born in the Kāmboja family. It is probable that the Kāmbojas first attempted to conquer Gauḍa during the reign of Devapāla, but were defeated at that time.⁸ R. P. Chanda surmises

¹ Jātaka (Fausböll), VI, p. 208; Ibid. (Cowell), VI, p. 110, f.n. 2.

² *Ibid.* (Fausböll), Vol. VI, pp. 208, 210.

³ Sāsanavamsa, P.T.S. Ed., 49.

⁴ p. 40, P.T.S. edition.

⁵ Ibid. (P.T.S.), p. 100.

⁶ R. D. Banerjee, Vāngālār Itihāsa, p. 182.

⁷ V. A. Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 414.

⁸ Banerjee, Vāngālār Itihāsa, p. 184.

that in the middle of the tenth century A.D., the Kāmbojas again attacked North Bengal, and that its present inhabitants (of Koch, Mech, and Paliā) are descended from them.¹ The Kāmboja rulers were expelled by Mahīpāla I, the ninth king of the Pāla line, who is known to have been reigning in A.D. 1026, and may be assumed to have regained his ancestral throne about A.D. 978 or 980.²

¹ Banerjee, Vāngālār Itihāsa, p. 205.

² V. A. Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., pp. 414-15.

CHAPTER II

THE GANDHĀRAS

Gandhāra formed an integral part of India from the earliest epoch of Indo-Aryan civilisation, and is unique among the countries of India, in that its history may be traced in unbroken continuity from Rigvedic times down to the present day ¹ (Rapson, Ancient India, p. 81). The Gandhāris ² or people of Gandhāra are mentioned in the hymns of the Rgveda, while the name Gandhāra occurs in the other Vedas, and in the Epics and Purāṇas as well as the Buddhist books.

Gandhāra was on the N.W. frontiers of India in the neighbourhood of the Kāmbojas, Madras and similar other tribes, but there are differences of opinion among scholars with regard to its exact boundaries. It is generally accepted that Gandhara denotes the region comprising the modern districts of Peshawar in the N.W. Frontier Province and Rawalpindi in the Punjab; but in the Old Persian inscriptions it seems to include also the district of Kābul in Afghānistān (see Rapson, Ancient India, p. 81). Rhys Davids (Buddhist India, p. 28) says that Gandhara (modern Kandahar) 3 was the district of E. Afghanistan, probably including the N.W. Punjab. Vincent Smith apparently concurs with this view, saying that Gandhara was equivalent to the N.W. Punjab and the adjoining regions.⁴ Dr. S. K. Aiyangar holds that Gandhara was equivalent to E. Afghanistan, extending from the Afghan mountains to the district somewhat to the East of Indus (Ancient India, p. 7). According to Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar, Gandhara included the western Punjab and E. Afghānistān. Its capital was Takshaśīlā where ruins are spread near Sarāīkālā in the Rawalpindi District of the Punjab.⁵ In the Ain-i-Akbari, Gandhāra forms the district of Pukely lying between Kashmir Gandhāra, says N. L. Dey, comprised the modern and Attock. districts of Peshawar and Hoti Murdan or what is called the Eusofzai

¹ Rapson, Ancient India, 81.

² Gandhāri is the Vedic form, later supplanted by Gandhāra.

³ There is no proved etymological connection between the names Kandahar and Gandhāra. See McCrindle, *Ptolemy*, p. 116.

⁴ V. A. Smith, Aśoka, 170.

⁵ Carmichael Lectures, 1918, p. 54.

country.1 Cunningham, relying on the narratives of the Chinese pilgrims, Fā Hien and Hsüan Tsang, gives the following boundaries to Gandhāra (Chinese Kien-to-lo): Laghmān and Jalālābād on the west, the hills of Swat and Bunir on the N., the Indus on the E., and the hills of Kālabāgh on the South (Ancient Geography, p. 48; and see McCrindle, Ancient India as described by Ptolemy, p. 116). According to Strabo, the country of the Gandarai, which he calls Gandaritis, lay between the Khoaspes (Kunar) and the Indus, and along the river Kophes (Kabul). The name is not mentioned by any of the historians of Alexander, but it must have been known to the Greeks as early as the time of Hekataios, who calls Kaspapyros a 'Gandaric city'. Herodotus mentions the Gandarioi.² Rennell placed them to the west of Baktria in the province afterwards called Margiana, while Wilson took them to be the people south of the Hindu Kush, from about the modern Kandahar to the Indus, and extending into the Punjab and to Kashmir (Ancient India as described by Ptolemy-McCrindle, pp. 115-6). In some books, the name 'Cave country' was applied to Gandhara (Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. I. p. 200).

From the above observations, and also from the various references to Gandhāra in Indian literature, it appears that the boundaries of the country varied at different periods in its history. At one time it appears to have included the Afghan District round Kandahar, but afterwards it receded to the mountains on the Indian frontier.

In the *Rgveda* the long wool of the sheep reared by the Gandhāris is referred to by Lomaśā, the queen of King Bhāvya or Bhavayavya, who ruled on the banks of the Sindhu (Indus); she says to her husband, 'I am covered with down like a ewe of the Gandhārins' (*Rgveda*, I, pp. 126, 7; Wilson's Trans., II, p. 78). From the facts that the verse is brought in very abruptly and that it is in a metre different from the rest of the hymn, Wilson observes that it is 'probably a fragment of some old popular song' (Trsl., p. 19). This would, therefore, attribute a knowledge of the Gandhāris to the Vedic Aryans in very ancient times.

A hymn in the Atharvaveda consigns Takman or fever to the Gandhāris along with other people like the Mūjavants, the Aṅgas and the Magadhas. The authors of the Vedic Index explain this mention of two northern peoples (the Gandhāris and Mūjavants)

¹ Discoveries have been made in this district of Buddhist architecture and sculpture of the time of Kanishka (first century A.D.). See N. L. Dey, Geographical Dictionary, p. 23.

² Book III, c. xci. He describes them as being clad in cotton garments, and bearing bows of reed, and arrows tipped with iron. See Rapson, *Ancient India*, p. 87; and McCrindle, p. 116.

with two eastern tribes (Angas and Magadhas), by noting that 'the latter two tribes are apparently the Eastern limit of the poet's knowledge; the two former the Northern'.

In the Brāhmaṇa literature also we find mention of the Gandhāris (e.g. *Chāndogya Upaniṣad*, 6, 14—the familiar example of the man who is led blind-folded from the land of the Gandhāras, and has to

find his way back by asking directions from village to village).

The Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (VII, 34) mentions Nagnajit, a king of Gandhāra, among the Vedic teachers who propagated the Soma-cult,—so it is evident that Gandhāra was not excluded from Vedic 'Aryandom'. In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (VIII, 1, 4, 10) also we find King Svarjit Nāgnajita or Nagnajit of Gandhāra referred to,—though in this case his opinion on a point of ritual is treated with scant respect as he was merely a Rājanya-bandhu, i.e. belonging to the princely order, and not a Rṣi. But this King Nagnajit is mentioned with great regard and respect in later literature from the great Epic onwards,² and in a technical book on painting he is quoted as the originator of that art.³

Coming to the next period of Vedic literature, viz. the period of the Sūtras, we find the people of Gandhāra mentioned in the Srauta-Sūtras of Baudhāyana, Āpastamba and Hiraṇyakeśī, along

with other Aryan peoples of the east and the west.4

The Mahābhārata contains many legends about Gandhāra. In the Ādiparvan we find that Dhṛtarāṣṭra, king of the Kurus, married the daughter of Suvala, King of Gandhāra, and 100 sons were born to them (Chap. 10, p. 118; Chap. 63, p. 72). A princess of Gandhāra was one of the wives of Ajamīḍha who was the originator of the Kuru family. Gandhāra, it is said, was named after this Gāndhārī (Ādiparvan, Chap. 95, p. 105). In the Udyogaparvan we find that King Yayāti sent his son Yadu into exile in Gandhāra, because he began to disregard his Kṣatriya superiors, becoming vain on account of his strength (Chap. 149, p. 771). In the Droṇaparvan it is said that Karṇa brought Gandhāra under the sway of Duryodhana (Chap. 4, p. 997); while in the Aśvamedhaparvan we read that Arjuna went to the Punjab (Pañcanada), where he had a hard fight with the son of Śakuni, King of Gandhāra. The Gandhāran army

¹ Vedic Index, I, p. 219.

² In the *Kumbhakāra Jātaka*, for example, it is said that he ruled over Gandhāra and Kashmir, and later became a monk.

³ Dokumente der Indischen Kunst, Erstes Heft, Malerei, des Citra Lakṣaṇa, edited by Berthold Laufer.

⁴ Baudhayāna Śrauta Sūtra, XXI, 13; Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra, XXII, 6, 18; Hiranyakešī Śrauta Sūtra, XVII, 6.

⁵ Suvala is also mentioned in the Sabhāparvan (Chap. 34, p. 245).

was put to flight, but Arjuna spared the life of Sakuni's son

(Chaps. 83-4, pp. 2093-4).

It would be wearisome to recount in detail all the references from the Mahābhārata to the actions of the Gandhāras in the longdrawn-out battle of Kuruksetra. We may note, however, that the Gandhāras, led by their King Sakuni, made up a powerful division of the Kuru army. When at the commencement of the battle Duryodhana came out in procession at the head of his vast army, Sakuni's contingent of hill troops (pārvatīya) surrounded him on all sides. This would seem to indicate that the warriors from the hills of Gandhāra were the most trusty of Duryodhana's soldiers, for they were chosen to form his bodyguard. After various adventures (Bhīṣmaparvan, Chap. 46, p. 76; Chap. 51, p. 14; Chap. 58, pp. 7-10), the Gandhāras on the 5th day of the battle, together with the Kāmbojas, Madras and other peoples of the N.W. frontier made an onset against Arjuna, under the lead of Sakuni (Bhīṣmaparvan, Chap. 71, pp. 13-17). The Gandharas and their princes further distinguished themselves throughout the battle (see Bhīsmaparvan, Chap. 90; Dronaparvan, Chap. 20; Chap. 29, pp. 2-27; Chap. 48, p. 7; Chap. 85, pp. 16-17; Salyaparvan, Chap. 8, p. 26). Evidently great reliance was placed on their prowess, and perhaps especially on their fast horses; for it appears that, like their neighbours, the Kāmbojas, the Gandhāras reared a large number of horses in their country, and their troops fought for the most part on horseback. References which do not give them credit are, e.g. Karnaparvan, Chap. 44, p. 46 and Chap. 45, p. 8, where Karna says that the Gandhāras along with the other races on the N.W. frontier are men of disgusting practices and customs; and ibid., Chap. 95, p. 6, where it is said that Sakuni cravenly fled from the field, surrounded by thousands of the Gandharas (Cf. also Dronaparvan, Chap. 29. pp. 2-27).

Gandhāra is also mentioned in the Purāṇas. According to the Matsya, Vāyu and Viṣṇu Purāṇas,² a certain Gāndhāra was born in the family of Druhyu, one of the sons of Yayāti, and the kingdom of Gandhāra was named after him. According to the Bhāgavata and Brahma Purāṇas,³ Gāndhāra was fourth in the line of descent from Druhyu. Gāndhāra had four children, namely, Dharma, Dhrti, Durgam and Pracetā.⁴ Pracetā had 100 sons who, being the kings of the Mleccha country, conquered the north (Viṣṇupurāṇa, 4th

¹ Bhīşmaparvan, 20, 8; see also ibid., Chap. 16, p. 28.

² Matsyapurāņa, 48; Vāyupurāņa, 99; Visnupurāņa, 4th Anka, Chap. 17.

^{3 9}th Skandha, Chap. 23 (Bhāgavata); Chap. 13 (Brahma).

⁴ According to the *Matsyapurāna*, three children: Dharma, Vidusa and Pracetā.

Anka, Chap. 17). Mention is also made of the Gandhara people in

Varāhamihira's Brhatsamhitā (Kern's Edition, p. 92).

Turning from legend or semi-legend to fact, we note that in the days of Asoka and some of his immediate successors, Gandhara was one of the most flourishing seats of Buddhism. We learn from Rock Edict V that Aśoka appointed Dharma-mahāmātras (high officers in the department of dharma or religious conduct) to further the welfare and happiness of the Gandhāras. Fā-Hien, the Chinese pilgrim, who visited India at the beginning of the fifth century A.D., relates that Gandhāra was the place where Dharmavivardhana, son of Aśoka, ruled. Here the Buddha, when a Bodhisattva, was supposed to have given his eyes for another man.2 Buddhist scholastic philosophy reached its culmination in the fifth century A.D., at the time when two famous Gandhārans, Asanga and Vasubandhu, flourished. Asanga, at first an adherent of the semiorthodox Mahīsāsakas, later became a great teacher of Yogācāra. Vasubandhu likewise became a convert to Mahāyānism; he was celebrated as the author of the Abhidharmakosa. Other notable Buddhist scholars who made Gandhara, and particularly its capital Takṣaśīlā (Taxila) famous throughout India were Dhammapāla.3 Yasadatta, and Angulimāla. For legendary accounts of Gandhāra as associated with Buddhism, see, e.g. Gandhāra Jātaka, Sāsanavamsa (P.T.S., p. 12), Divyāvadāna (Cowell and Neil, pp. 60-1).

Hsüan Tsang, who visited India in the seventh century A.D., has left an interesting account of Gandhara. He records the ruined state of monasteries and shrines which two centuries before showed no traces of decay. The kingdom of Gandhāra, according to him, was about 1,000 li 6 from north to south. On the east it bordered on the river Sin (= Sindhu). The capital was called Po-lu-sha-pu-lo, i.e. Purusapura, and was about 40 li in circuit. The royal family was extinct, and the kingdom was governed by deputies from The towns and villages were deserted; but the country was rich in cereals, producing a variety of flowers and fruits, and abounding in sugarcane. The Chinese pilgrim goes on to say: 'The climate is warm and moist. The disposition of the people is timid and soft; they love literature, and while most of them belong to heretical schools, a few believe in the true law (i.e. Buddhism)'. In the town of P'i-lo-tu-lo (i.e. Salātula), he observes, Pāṇini was born (see Buddhist Records of the Western World (Beal), Vol. I, pp. 97-8; p. 114).

¹ Cf. Chapter on Kāmbojas.

² Legge, Travels of Fa-Hien, pp. 31-2.

³ Psalms of the Brethren, p. 149.

⁵ Ibid., pp. 319 et seq.

⁴ Ibid., p. 201.

⁶ One li = approx. 576 metres.

The early capital cities of Gandhāra (each being the centre of its own kingdom) were Puṣkalāvatī or Puṣkarāvatī, and Takṣaśīlā (Taxila),—the former being situated to the west and the latter to the east of the Indus. It would appear that in early times the Gandhāra territory lay on both sides of the Indus, but was later confined to the western side (McCrindle, p. 115). As we have just seen, Hsüan Tsang knew Puruṣapura (= Peshawar) as the capital; and yet another city, namely, Kāpiśa, was a Gandhāran capital during the days of Greek rule.¹

According to Cunningham, the most ancient capital of Gandhāra was Puṣkarāvatī, which is said to have been founded by Puṣkara, son of Bharata and nephew of Rāma.² Puṣkalāvatī's antiquity is undoubted, as it was the capital of an Indian Prince named Hasti (Greek Astes) at the time of Alexander's expedition (326 B.C.). It is called Peukelaotis by Arrian and Peukalei by Dionysius Periegetes. Together with Takṣaśīlā, Puṣkalāvatī came under the Saka rule during the reign of Maues ³ (c. 75 B.C.). Tārānātha mentions the town as a royal residence of Kaniṣka's son (Vincent Smith, Early

History of India, 4th Ed., p. 277, f.n. 1).

Shi-shi-ch'eng, the Chinese name for Takṣaśīlā, the Eastern capital of Gandhara, means 'severed head'. The legend goes that when the Buddha was a Bodhisattva in this city, he gave his head away in charity, and the city took its name from this circumstance.4 The city as described by Arrian was great, wealthy and populous. Strabo and Hsüan Tsang praise the fertility of its soil. Pliny calls it a famous city, and states that it was situated on a level where the hills sank down into the plains. About 80 years after Taksaśīlā's submission to Alexander, it was taken by Asoka; while by the early part of the second century B.C. it had become a province of the Graeco-Baktrian monarchy,—only to be conquered in 126 B.C.5 by the Indo-Skythian Sus or Abars, who retained it until it was taken from them by a different tribe of the same nationality, under Kaniska (c. 78 B.C.). About the middle of the first century A.D. it is said to have been visited by Apollonius of Tyana and his companion Damis, who described it as being about the size of Nineveh, walled like a Greek city, with narrow but well-arranged streets. Taksaśīlā must have been destroyed long before the Muhammadan

¹ Rapson, Ancient India, pp. 133, 141-2.

Viṣṇupurāṇa, Wilson's Edition, Vol. IV, Ch. 4.
 Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 560; see also Brown, Coins of India,

p. 24. ⁴ Legge, *Fā-Hien*, p. 32.

⁵ But note discrepancy in dates of conquest.

invasion, for it is not mentioned by any Muhammadan author who

has written upon India.1

· Cunningham says that the site of Taksaśīlā is found near Shah-Dheri just one mile to the N.E. of Kāla-ka-sarāi, in the extensive ruins of a fortified city around which he was able to trace no less than 55 stūpas (of which two are as large as the great Mānikyāla tope), 28 monasteries and 9 temples. Now the distance from Shah-Dheri to Ohind is 36 miles, and from Ohind to Hashtnagar another 38, making 74 miles in all,—which is 19 in excess of the distance between Taxila and Peukelaotis (Puskalāvatī) as recorded by Pliny. To reconcile the discrepancy, Cunningham suggests that Pliny's 60 miles or LX should be read as 80 miles or LXXX, which is equivalent to $73\frac{1}{2}$ English miles or within half a mile of the actual distance between places (Cunningham, Ancient Geography, Dr. Bhandarkar says that in Asoka's time Taksasīlā does not appear to have been the capital of Gandhara, for from his Rock Edict XIII it seems that Gandhāra was not in his dominions proper, but was feudatory to him; while from the Kalinga Edict I, we learn that Taksaśīlā was directly under him, as one of his sons was stationed there. The deduction that Taksaśīlā was not the capital of Gandhāra at that time is confirmed by Ptolemy's statement that the Gandarai (Gandhāra) country was situated to the west of the Indus with its city Proklais, i.e. Puskarāvatī.3

Takṣaśīlā was visited by Hsüan Tsang in the seventh century

A.D. (when it was a dependency of Kashmir).4

Takṣaśīlā figures prominently in Buddhist and Jain stories. It was associated with Mahāvīra, the founder of Jainism ⁵ (see *Heart of Jainism* by Mrs. Sinclair Stevenson, p. 80, f.n.), and with traditions regarding the Buddha. It is stated in the *Dīpavaṃsa* that a Kṣatriya prince named Dīpaṃkara, and his sons and grandsons governed their great kingdom in Takṣaśīlā ⁶ (Pāli Takkhasīlā). In the *Dutiyapalāyi Jātaka* we find that King Gāndhāra (= the Gandhāran) of Takṣaśīlā attacked and surrounded Benares with his four-fold army, and boasted that nobody would be able to defeat him. But the King of Benares said to him: 'I shall destroy your army like mad elephants destroying a *nalavana* (bamboo grove)'. King Gāndhāra forthwith

² Carmichael Lectures, 1918, p. 54, f.n.

⁶ Dipavamsa, ed. Oldenberg, III, 31.

¹ See McCrindle, Ancient India as described by Ptolemy, pp. 119 et seq.

 $^{^3}$ See also $F\bar{a}$ -Hien's Travels (Legge's Ed.), pp. 31-2 where the traveller distinguishes Takkhasīlā from Gandhāra.

⁴ V. A. Smith, Early History of India, 4th edition, p. 368. Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. I, p. 240.

⁵ S. Stevenson, Heart of Jainism, p. 80, f.n.

fled, terrified, to his own kingdom.¹ But we find the situation reversed in the *Palāyi Jātaka*: Brahmadatta, King of Benares, leads an army to Takṣaśīlā, but is so struck by the splendour of the city gate, which he mistakes for a palace, that he does not dare to make an attack on so mighty a king (the king being pictured as the Bodhisattva), and returns baffled to his own country.²

Takṣaśīlā was a great seat of learning in Ancient India. Various arts and sciences were taught there, and pupils from different parts of India would flock to the city for instruction.³ Here also magic charms ⁴ and spells for understanding the cries of animals ⁵ were taught. According to *Jātaka* (IV, 391), only Brahmans and Kṣatriyas were admitted to the university. The details of Taxila's importance as a seat of learning have been given by me elsewhere, ⁶ and a brief notice is all that is necessary here.

As regards the authentic political history of Gandhara itself, as distinct from that of its capitals, we find that in the Buddha's time Pukkusāti, King of Gandhāra, is said to have sent an embassy and a letter to King Bimbisāra (Skt. Bindusāra) of Magadha.7 Prof. Rapson states 8 that Gandhara was in all probability conquered by Cyrus (558-530 B.C.), and remained a Persian province for about two centuries. After the downfall of the Persian empire in 331 B.C.. it came under the sway of Alexander the Great, together with the Persian province of 'India' or 'the country of the Indus'. Through Gandhāra and the 'Indian' province was exercised the Persian influence which so greatly modified the civilisation of N.W. India. Later, as we have seen, Gandhāra was feudatory to Aśoka, but it declared its independence shortly after his death,—only to fall very soon under the sway of the Greek kings.9 According to Whitehead,¹⁰ it was Euthydemos (circa. 230–195 B.C.) who conquered Gandhāra. R. D. Banerjee, however, presumes ¹¹ that the conqueror was Diyadāta (Diodotos) II, as some gold coins of his reign have been discovered by Sir John Marshall in the ruins of Taxila. Whitehead's supposition is the more probable, if we are to assume that Gandhara was subject to the Maurya Empire until

¹ Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. II, pp. 219–21.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 217-8.

³ See, e.g. Psalms of the Brethren, p. 136.

⁴ Jātaka, II, No. 185, p. 100.

⁵ *Ibid.*, III, No. 416, p. 415.

⁶ See B. C. Law, Historical Gleanings, Chap. I, pp. 1-8.

<sup>Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 28.
Rapson, Ancient India, pp. 81-82.</sup>

⁹ R. D. Banerjee, Vāngālār Itihāsa, pp. 31-2.

¹⁰ Catalogue of Coins in the Punjab Museum, Lahore, Vol. I, p. 4.

¹¹ Prācīna Mudrā, p. 27.

Aśoka's death in 227 B.C., for the house of Diodotos was supplanted by Euthydemos in 230 B.C.

A rival Greek prince, Eucratides (circa. 175–155 B.C.) wrested Gandhāra, with other territories, from Demetrios, the 4th Bactrian king.¹ The family of Eucratides was supplanted in its turn by Saka satraps in Kāpiśa and Taxila, but continued to hold the Kabul Valley until finally overpowered by the Kushāṇas.² At the end of the fifth century A.D., Gandhāra was occupied by the Hūṇas.³ After this, information is scanty until we come to the late 9th century, when Lalliya founded the Hindu Shāhiya dynasty, with its capital at Ohind, on the Indus.⁴ In the 11th century (1021 A.D., according to Vincent Smith) Trilocanapāla, the last king of the Shāhiya dynasty, was defeated on the banks of the river Toṣi by Sultan Mahmud of Ghazni, and after his reign no account is available of the Hindu rule in Gandhāra, apart from the fact that his son Bhīmapāla regained his independence for five years.⁵

We may close this chapter by making one or two remarks on the trade relations of Gandhāra, and by giving some references for the further study of the celebrated school of art which takes its name from this country. The Jātakas testify to the existence of trade relations between the Kashmir-Gandhāra kingdom and the north-eastern kingdom of Videha (see, e.g. Gandhāra Jātaka and Fick, The Social Organisation in N.E. India in Budāha's Time, p. 272). Horse-dealers figure prominently amongst the Gandhāran traders, and we learn from the Vāyupurāṇa that the Gandhāran horses were considered the best of all (Chap. 99). We find references to the production of valuable blankets or woollen shawls (kambala) in the Vessantara Jātaka (Fausböll, Jātaka, Vol. VI, pp. 500-1), and also in the Suttanipāta Commentary (II, 487). In later times (9th and 10th centuries) it was in Gandhāra that the finest 'double-die' coins were struck.⁶

The story of Gandhāra art is a complete study in itself, and all we can do here is to give some references to authorities on the subject, for example, Vincent Smith's History of Fine Art in India and Ceylon; James Fergusson's History of Indian and Eastern Architecture (2nd Edition, London, 1910); A. Foucher, L'Art gréco-bouddhique du Gandhāra; Sir John Marshall, A Guide to Taxila; and contributions to A.S.I. (Annual Reports) by J. Ph. Vogel, D. B. Spooner, Sir John Marshall and A. Cunningham.

¹ See Rapson, Ancient India, p. 133; Brown, Coins of India, pp. 23-4.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 133 and 142.

³ V. A. Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 328.

⁴ Ibid., 4th Ed., p. 388. ⁵ R. D. Banerjee, Prācīna Mudrā, p. 198.

⁶ See Brown, Coins of India, p. 53.

CHAPTER III

THE KURUS

The Kurus form one of the most ancient and prominent of the Indo-Aryan Ksatriya tribes. In one of the verses of a Rigyedic hymn (X, 33, 4) occurs the word, Kuruśravana, which is interpreted by some scholars either as 'the glory of the Kurus', or as 'the hearer of the praises of the Kurus'; but is more generally taken to be the name of a particular king, a ruler of the Kuru tribe. In the hymn which follows this one, the charities of the prince Kuruśravana are praised, and there can be no doubt that 'Kuruśravana' is here the name of a particular sovereign, especially as some of his ancestors are also mentioned (see Rgveda, X, 33, 1 and 4-9; Wilson, Rgveda, Vol. VI. pp. 80-90). The seer mourns the death of his generous donor, and, in the last four verses, it seems that he consoles Upamaśrayas, the son of Kuruśrayana, and mentions Mitrātithi, grandfather of Upamaśravas. But the Brhaddevatā (supported by Kātyāyana's Sarvānukramanī) states that it was for the death of his grandfather Mitrātithi that Upamaśravas is being consoled in these verses.

In the same hynn, Kuruśravaṇa is also called Trāsadasyava or 'descendant of Trasadasyu'. Trasadasyu is well known in the Rgveda (IV, 38, 1; VII, 19, 3, etc.) as a king of the Pūrus. Trasadasyu's people, the Pūrus, were settled on the Sarasvatī (see Vedic Index, I, 327), a locality which accords well with the later union of Pūrus and Kurus. According to the Vedic Index, 'it is likely that the Tṛtsu-Bharatas who appear in the Rgveda as enemies of the Pūrus, later coalesced with them to form the Kuru people',¹ for there is evidence that the Bharatas, like the Pūrus, occupied the territory in which the Kurus were later found. Two of them are spoken of in a hymn of the Rgveda (III, 23) as having kindled fire on the Dṛsadvatī, the Āpayā and the Sarasvatī—that is to say, in the sacred places of the later Kurukṣetra.²

Professor Keith also urges this view of the incorporation of the Bharatas with the Kurus in his chapter contributed to the Cambridge History of India (p. 118, *Cam. Hist.*), while Prof. Rapson concurs with him, observing that the Bharatas who were settled in the

¹ Vedic Index, I, 167.

² For further evidence of the merging of the Bharatas in the Kurus, see *Vedic Index*, I, 167-8.

country of the Sarasvatī in Rigvedic times were later merged in the Kurus; and that their whole territory, the new together with the old, became famous in history under the name 'Kurukṣetra'—'the field of the Kurus'. This was the scene of the great war of the descendants of Bharata, and the centre from which Indo-Aryan culture spread, first throughout Hindusthan, and eventually throughout the whole sub-continent.¹

Another king, whose glories as a generous donor are sung in a hymn of the *Rgveda* (VIII, 23), namely Pākasthāman, is given the designation Kaurayāṇa,—most probably a patronymic; while in the *Atharvaveda* (XX, 127, 8) a man called Kauravya is described as having enjoyed prosperity under the rule of King Parīkṣit. Evidently, therefore, the name Kuru was already applied in the early Vedic

age to a prominent tribe of Indo-Aryan Ksatriyas.

It is, however, in the Brāhmana literature that the Kurus acquire the greatest prominence among the Ksatriya tribes of ancient India. In the Brāhmana literature, the Kurus are often connected with the Pañcālas and from the way in which the Kuru-Pañcālas are mentioned, there is no room for doubt that it was in the country inhabited by them that some of the most famous Brahmana works were Thus the Aitareya Brāhmana in its chapter on the Mahābhiseka of Indra states: 'Then in this firm middle established quarter the Sādhyas and the Aptyas, the gods, anointed him (i.e. Indra)... for kingship. Therefore in this firm middle established quarter, whatever kings there are of the Kuru-Pañcālas with the Vasas and Usinaras, they are anointed for kingship' (Aitareya Brāhmana, VIII, 14, Tr. Keith, Rgveda Brāhmanas, p. 331). From the way in which mention is made of the country of the Kuru-Pañcālas, it is evident that the author of the Aitareya Brāhmana was a native of that region. The authors of the Vedic Index² are of the opinion that the great Brāhmanas were composed in the Kuru-Pañcāla country, though Weber would suggest a different locality for the Tāndya Mahābrāhmana of the Sāmaveda, and the Satapatha Brāhmana of the White Yajurveda.

Eliot points out that at the time when the Brāhmaṇas and earlier Upaniṣads were composed (circa 800-600 B.C.), the principal political units were the kingdoms of the Pañcālas and Kurus in the region of Delhi. The Kurus are comparatively seldom mentioned alone, their name usually being coupled with that of the Pañcālas; and the Kuru-Pañcālas are often expressly referred to as a united

4 Hinduism and Buddhism, Vol. I, p. 20.

¹ Cambridge History of India, I, 47.

⁸ History of Indian Literature, pp. 68 and 132.

nation. Speech is said to have its particular home in the Kuru-Pañcāla land; and the mode of sacrifice of the Kuru-Pañcālas is proclaimed to be the best. The Kuru-Pañcāla Brahmins are famous in the Upaniṣads: for example, in the last kāṇḍa of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa we find mention of the Brahmins of the Kuru-Pañcāla country being invited and given huge largesses by Janaka, king of Videha (cf. Bṛhadāraṇyaka Up., III, I, I, foll.).

The Satapatha Brāhmaṇa (XII, 9, 3, 3) speaks of a Kauravya King Balhika Prātipīya (Kauravya and Kaurava being interchangeable variants); while Yāska's Nirukta¹ also asserts that Devāpi Ārṣṭiṣeṇa and Śāntanu were Kauravyas. The Kuru kings are mentioned by the name Koravya in the Pāli Buddhist literature, as we

shall show below.

The Chāndogya Upaniṣad, which is the remnant of an ancient Brāhmaṇa work belonging to the Sāmaveda, contains an account of the destruction of crops in the Kuru country by locusts or by a hailstorm, and it further recounts the story of how a famished Rṣi (Uṣasti Cākrāyaṇa) of the Kuru land was forced to partake of food that was unclean, and how in spite of this temporary impurity under the stress of famine, the Rṣi was successful in winning for himself the highest functions at the subsequent sacrifice performed by the king at Ibhyagrāma (Chāndogya Upaniṣad, I, 10, 1–7; Sacred Books of the East, Vol. I, pp. 18-19).

We have seen that the Aitareya Brāhmana speaks of the country of the Kuru-Pañcālas as belonging to the 'dhruvā madhyamā dik', i.e., to what is known in later literature as the Madhyadeśa or middle country. Prof. Rapson points out that the territories occupied by the Kurus extended to the East far beyond the limits of Kuruksetra. The Kurus must have occupied the northern portion of the Doab, or the region between the Jumna and the Ganges, having as their neighbours on the east the North Pañcālas, and on the south, the South Pañcālas, who held the rest of the Doab as far as the land of the Vatsas, the corner where the two rivers meet at Prayāga (Allahabad).²

The great law-giver Manu speaks of the country of the Kurus and other allied peoples (Matsyas, Pañcālas and Śūrasenakas) as forming the sacred land of the Brahmarsis (Brahmanical sages), ranking immediately after Brahmāvarta (Manu, II, 17–19). He indirectly praises the prowess of these peoples by saying that they should be placed in the van of any battle-array (Manu, VII, 193).

In the first verse of the *Bhagavadgītā*, the only book in India which is reverenced by people of all kinds of religious belief, the land

¹ II, 10.

² Rapson, Ancient India, p. 165.

of Kurus is called Dharmakṣetra, or the holy land. In other parts of the *Mahābhārata*, too, Kurukṣetra is mentioned as a land which was especially holy. Thus the *Vanaparvan* (Chap. 129, pp. 394-5) tells us that Kurukṣetra was the holy spot of the righteous Kurus. It was here that Nahuṣa's son, Yayāti, performed many religious ceremonies, that divine and royal sages performed the Sārasvata Yajña, and that Prajāpati performed his Yajña. In the Brāhmaṇa texts also, Kurukṣetra is regarded as a particularly sacred country, for within its boundaries flowed the sacred streams Dṛṣadvatī and Sarasvatī, as well as the Āpayā.¹

The 'field of the Kurus', or the region of Delhi, was the scene of the war between the Kurus and Pāṇḍus, in which all the nations of India were ranged on one side or the other, according to the Epic in its present form. It has been the great battle-field of India ever since, as it forms a narrow strip of habitable country lying between the Himalayas and the Indian Desert through which every invading army from the Punjab must force its way. Because of this strategical importance, Delhi became the capital of India under the Mughal emperors who came into India by land from the N.W. (Rapson,

Ancient India, p. 173).

Besides the Kurus of the Madhyadesa, we find references to another Kuru people, viz. the Uttara-Kurus. The Aitareya Brāhmana mentions the country of the Uttara-Kurus in its chapter on the mahābhiṣeka of Indra (Ait. Br., VIII, 14; Tr. Keith's Rgveda Brāhmaṇas, pp. 330-1). The authors of the Vedic Index are of the opinion that the Uttara-Kurus were a historical people at the time when this passage of the Aitareya Brāhmana was written. observe: 'The Uttara-Kurus, who play a mythical part in the Epic and later literature, are still a historical people in the Aitareya Brāhmana, where they are located beyond the Himalaya (parena Himavantam). In another passage, however, the country of the Uttara-Kurus is stated by Vāśistha Sātyahavya to be a land of the gods (deva-ksetra), but Jānamtapi Atyarāti was anxious to conquer it, so that it is still not wholly mythical. It is reasonable to accept Zimmer's view that the northern Kurus were settled in Kaśmir. especially as Kuruksetra is the region where tribes advancing from Kaśmir might naturally be found.2

In Buddhist literature, Uttara-Kuru is very often mentioned as a mythic region, but there are some passages which go to show that there was a faint memory of a country that once had a historical existence [see, e.g. the reference to 'Kurudīpa', Dīpavaṃsa, p. 16; and the statement in the Sāsanavaṃsa (p. 12) that the place of the

¹ Vedic Index, I, p. 169.

inhabitants of Uttaradvīpa is called the kingdom of Kurus (Kuru-

rattham)].

The Southern Kurus are mentioned in the Papañcasūdanī (P.T.S. edition, p. 225), while the Anguttara Nikāya tells us that Kuru was one of the sixteen mahājanapadas or prominent countries of Jambudīpa (= India), having abundant food and wealth, and the 'seven kinds of gems'. In Buddhist literature, as in the Brāhmana literature, the Kurus are comparatively seldom mentioned alone. their name being usually coupled with that of the Pañcālas. read in the Papañcasūdanī that there was no vihāra for the Buddha's habitation in the Kuru kingdom, but that there was a beautiful forest outside the town of Kammasadhamma where he used to dwell. We are told further that the inhabitants of the Kuru kingdom enjoyed good health, and their mind was always ready to receive instruction in profound religious truths, because the climate was bracing at all seasons, and the food was good. The Buddha delivered some profound and learned discourses to the Kurus, e.g. the Mahānidāna and Mahāsatipatthāna Suttantas of the Dīgha Nikāya. (For fanciful stories of the Kurus' meditation on Satipatthana, see further Papañcasūdanī, P.T.S., pp. 227-9.)

The Buddhist literature is full of stories in which the land of Kuru and its princes and people play a leading part. For instance, the Thera Ratthapāla, who contributed some verses to the Theragāthā, was born in the town of Thullakoṭṭhika in the country of the Kurus, and we are told that he converted the King 'Koravya' to Buddhism.² The Dhammapada Commentary relates the story of Aggidatta, the chaplain of the king of Kosala (Mahākosala, predecessor of Pasenadi). After his retirement, Aggidatta dwelt on the borders of the Kuru country and Anga-Magadha, together with his 10,000 disciples; and the inhabitants of these countries used to supply the whole company with food and drink. Eventually Aggidatta and all his followers were

converted by the Buddha.8

In the Therigāthā commentary (p. 87) we read that a theri named Nanduttarā was reborn in a Brahmin family in the city of Kammāsadamma (or Kammāsadhamma) in the kingdom of the Kurus. She first became a Jain, but was later converted by Mahākaccāyana, accepted ordination from him, and attained arahantship. In the *Paramatthadīpanī* (pp. 201-4) we have an account of the miseries suffered after death by a certain Serinī, a heretical woman of the Kuru capital.

¹ Anguttara Nikāya, Vol. I, p. 213; Vol. IV, pp. 252, 256 and 260; Dīgha Nikāya, II, pp. 200, 201 and 203.

² Psalms of the Brethren, pp. 302-7; Majjhima Nikāya, II, pp. 65 et seq. ³ See Dhammapada Comm., Vol. III, pp. 241-2; 246-7.

Returning to the history of the tribe itself, we find that the authors of the *Vedic Index* consider that the Kurus represent a comparatively late wave of Aryan immigration into India. 'The geographical position of the Kuru-Pañcālas', they say, 'renders it probable that they were later immigrants into India than the Kosala-Videhas or the Kāśīs who must have been pushed into their more eastward territories by a new wave of Aryan settlers from the west'.¹

In the *Papañcasūdanī*, there is a fanciful story of the origin of the Kurus. Mahāmandhātā, king of Jambudīpa, was a cakravartin, and therefore subject to no restrictions of place. He conquered Pubbavideha, Aparagoyāna and Uttara-Kuru, besides the Devalokas. When he was returning from Uttara-Kuru, a large number of the inhabitants of that country followed Mahāmandhātā to Jambudīpa, and the place where they settled became known as Kururaṭṭham.²

The ancient capital of the Kurus was Hastināpura which was situated on the Ganges in what is now the Meerut district of the United Provinces. Indraprastha, the modern Indrapat near Delhi, was the second capital. According to the Epic story, the blind king Dhrtarastra continued to rule at the old capital Hastinapura on the Ganges, while he assigned to his nephews, the five Pandus, a district on the Jumna where they founded Indraprastha.3 While the ancient capital of the Kurus sank into insignificance, the new city erected by the Pandavas has not only come down to our time, but has acquired a fresh lease of life as the seat of the central government of the British Indian Empire. Another city of the Kuru country, according to the Prākrit legend given in the commentary on the Uttarādhyayana Sūtra, was Ishukāra (Prākrit Usuyāra or Isuyāra), 'a wealthy and famous town, beautiful like heaven'.4 We have already referred to the town of Kammāsadhamma, which must have been well known in the Buddha's time. It is also called Kammāsadamma,—derived by popular etymology from Kammāsa (a prince) and damma (from dam, to tame), because Kammāsa was brought under control by the Bodhisattva when he was born as a son of King Jayaddisa of Pañcāla (Papañcasūdanī, pp. 226-7). of Kammāsa is narrated in full in the Jayaddisa Jātaka, in which we find that the Bodhisattva was born as the son of King Jayaddisa of Pañcala. One of the King's other sons was carried away by a Yakkhini (ogress) who brought him up, and taught him cannibalistic habits. After many attempts to capture him had failed, he was at last brought under control by the Bodhisattva.

¹ Vedic Index, I, pp. 168-9.

⁸ Rapson, Ancient India, p. 173.

² Papañcasūdanī, pp. 225-6.

⁴ Iaina Sūtras, II, p. 62n.

called Kammāsa ('spotted, blemished') because of a boil which appeared on his leg. It is apparent that this story is simply a

variation of the Puranic story of Kalmasapada.

The Epic and Purānic tradition regarding the origin of the Kurus is as follows: Pūru,² the son of Yayāti by Vṛṣaparva's daughter Śarmiṣṭhā, and grandson of Nahuṣa, was fifth in descent from Pururavā, son of Ilā, daughter of Manu, the father of mankind (Mānava-vaṃśa); and the dynasty which sprang from this Pūru was celebrated as the Paurava dynasty. Tenth in descent from Pūru was Saṃvaraṇa. When his kingdom was conquered by the king of the Pañcālas, Saṃvaraṇa fled in fear, together with his wives, children and ministers, and took shelter in a forest on the banks of the Sindhu (Indus). He eventually regained his kingdom, with the help of his priest, the sage Vaśiṣṭha; and a son named Kuru was born to him, by Tapatī, daughter of Sūrya. The people were charmed by the manifold good qualities of Kuru, and anointed him king. After the name of this king, the plain became famous as Kurukṣetra or the field of Kuru.³

In the Epic period, the Kurus became the most powerful Kṣatriya tribe in northern India, after the downfall of the Magadha empire of Rājagṛha when Bhīmasena, who belonged to the younger branch of the Kauravas, killed the Samrāṭ (Emperor) Jarāsandha. Bhīmasena's grandson, Pratīpa, had three sons, Devāpi, Vāhlika and Śāntanu. The eldest son, Devāpi, was a leper, and for this reason King Pratīpa was prevented by his subjects and by the advice of wise men from placing him on the throne. Devāpi became an ascetic, while Vāhlika went to rule over his maternal uncle's land, and, after Pratīpa's death, granted permission to his brother Śāntanu to reign over the Kuru country.4

After Śāntanu came his sons Citrāngada and Vicitravīrya, both of whom died childless. However, in a semi-miraculous manner, two sons (Dhṛṭarāṣṭra and Pāṇḍu) were born posthumously to Vicitravīrya's wives. Dhṛṭarāṣṭra married Gāndhārī, daughter of Suvala, king of the Gandhāras, and had by her one hundred sons, known as the Kurus or Kauravas, of whom the eldest was Duryodhana who could work miracles by the power of mantras.⁵

¹ Jātaka (Fausböll), V, pp. 21 et seq.

² Mahābhārata, Dronaparvan, Chap. 61, p. 1035.

 ⁸ Ādiparvan, Vangavāsī Ed., Chap. 75, pp. 86-8; Chap. 85, p. 96; Chap. 94,
 p. 104.
 4 Udyogaparvan, Chap. 149, p. 771.

⁵ Ibid., Chap. 61, p. 707 (Vangavāsī Ed.); and Sāntiparvan, Chap. 4, p. 1378, for further details about Duryodhana. For detailed (largely legendary) genealogies of the descendants of Kuru, see Viṣṇupurāṇa, IV, Chap. 20; and Bhāgavata Purāṇa, Skandha 9, Chap. 22.

As Dhrtarastra was blind from birth, Pandu, though younger, was placed on the throne left vacant by the death of Vicitravirya. Matters grew complex when sons were born to both the brothers, and the difficulty was not lessened when Dhrtarastra took over the government on the premature death of Pandu, had his five nephews brought up with his own sons, and finally appointed his eldest nephew. Yudhisthira, to be heir-apparent. Dhrtarastra's own sons, consumed with jealousy, set various plots on foot against their cousins, and eventually the old king decided on a compromise, giving Hastinapura to his sons, and to his nephews a district where they built the city of Indraprastha. Here the Pandavas, in the words of Prof. Macdonell, 'ruled wisely and prospered greatly. Duryodhana's jealousy being aroused, he resolved to ruin his cousins, with the aid of his uncle Śakuni, a skilful gamester'. Yudhisthira was thereupon challenged to a game of dice with Sakuni, - a challenge which he could not refuse, as this was a matter of honour among Indian Ksatriyas in those days. Owing to dishonest tricks on Sakuni's part, Yudhisthira was defeated, and lost everything, his kingdom, wealth, army, brothers, and finally Draupadi, the joint wife of the five Pandavas. In the end it was arranged that the Pandavas should go into banishment for twelve years, and to remain incognito for a thirteenth. after which they might return and regain their kingdom. passed their period of banishment in the forest, and remained incognito for the thirteenth year at the court of King Virāta of the Matsvas.

The Matsya king and his people honoured Yudhisthira and his brothers, and were grateful to them for preventing the predatory excursions of the Trigarttas and Kurus against their cattle. The bond with the Matsyas was further cemented by the marriage of Virāṭa's daughter with Abhimanyu, the son of Arjuna. The Pāṇḍavas were further related through Draupadī with the powerful king of Pañcāla; and they had a firm friend in Kṛṣṇa, the hero of the Yādavas. It was felt, accordingly, that a successful attempt might be made to recover the dominions out of which they had been cheated. The King of Pañcāla suggested that they should resort to war, and kings of other neighbouring countries were invited to help the Pāṇḍavas. But before the war began the brothers made a last unsuccessful attempt to negotiate peace, sending Kṛṣṇa Vāsudeva as their emissary to the Kuru court.²

After the failure of negotiations, allies were invited from far and near; even the kings of the south contributed their quota, for by that

¹ Sanskrit Literature, p. 292.

² Mbh., Udyogaparvan, Vangavāsī Ed., Chap. 127.

time the Kṣatriyas had spread over the whole of India, and, according to the Epic account, all of them were ranged on one side or the other. Dhṛṣṭadyumna was made generalissimo of the Pāṇḍava forces, Arjuna being the greatest hero on their side, with Kṛṣṇa Vāsudeva as his chief, so to speak. Being prevented by a vow from taking up arms in the battle, Kṛṣṇa took upon himself the duty of driving his friend's chariot.

The Indian army in those days, as in later times, consisted of four divisions, viz. foot-soldiers, elephants, chariots, and horses. Arriving at Kuruksetra, the Pandavas encamped with their troops on the western part of the field, facing the numerically much stronger force of Duryodhana and his allies (Mbh., Udyogaparvan, Chap. 198; Chap. 151, Chap. 154). Of the 18 aksauhinis or regiments that assembled on the battle-field, II were on Duryodhana's side, and 7 on that of his cousins. In individual heroes also Duryodhana's army was apparently much stronger. But the Kurus, in spite of their preponderant strength, felt misgivings on the eve of the battle. while the Pandavas were buoyed up with the righteousness of their The commander of Duryodhana's army was the old warrior Bhisma, and the allies of the Kurus included the peoples of Kośala, Videha, Anga, Vanga, Gandhara, Sindhu, and many other States. Duryodhana caused his camps to be made to look like a second Hastināpura, and into these camps he made soldiers with their horses enter in groups of a hundred each, arranging names and emblems for all of them so that they might be recognised in the battle.

When the two powers were thus ready to fight, the Kurus and the Pāṇḍavas were bound to follow the traditional rules of a fair fight among the Kṣatriyas of India. Only men equally situated or matched could fairly fight one another. Combatants armed with the same kind of weapons should be ranged against one another. Those that left the battle-field should never be killed, a fleeing enemy was not to be pursued, and one devoid of arms should never be struck. A chariot-warrior should fight only with another chariot-warrior, and, similarly, with horse and foot-soldiers, and those riding on elephants. One engaged in a personal combat with another, one seeking refuge, one retreating, one whose weapon was broken, and one clad in armour should never be struck; neither should noncombatants on the field of battle, such as charioteers, attendants engaged in carrying weapons, players on drums and blowers of conches, be smitten.¹

This was the tacit understanding between the two armies, and the rules were generally not violated except under very special circumstances.

The Kuru army with Bhīṣma at its head advanced first, then the Pāṇḍava army led by Bhīmasena. The soldiers of both sides rushed upon one another with loud yells and a simultaneous blowing of conches. The fight raged furiously for ten days, at the end of which Bhīsma fell, and both forces were withdrawn for a lull.

On Bhīṣma's death, Droṇa was made commander of the Kaurava troops, and the fight raged for a further eight days, until finally Abhimanyu, Droṇa, Karṇa, and Śalya were all slain, and a great disorder prevailed, especially in the Kuru army, now consisting only of a few scattered soldiers. Sahadeva, one of the Pāṇḍu princes, killed the gamester Śakuni, and Duryodhana himself was killed by Bhīmasena after making a last desperate rush at the enemy. With Duryodhana's death, the victory in the Kurukṣetra war fell to the Pāṇḍavas; but only a handful of their followers came out of the fray alive.

With the death of the hundred sons of Dhṛtarāṣṭra, the Kuru line through him became extinct, and the Pāṇḍavas now became lords of the Kuru kingdom, Yudhiṣṭhira being acclaimed king. The Pāṇḍus were reconciled to the aged Dhṛṭarāṣṭra who retired to the forest after remaining at Hastināpura for fifteen years, and he and his queens finally perished in a forest conflagration. Yudhiṣṭhira himself did not reign long. When he heard of Kṛṣṇa's accidental death, and of the destruction of the Vṛṣṇis, he determined to leave the world, and he and his brothers retired to the forest, leaving the young prince Parīkṣit,¹ grandson of Arjuna, to rule over Hastināpura.

Parīkṣit was learned in the science of the duties of kings, and is credited with having possessed all noble qualities. He is described as a highly intelligent ruler, and a great hero, who wielded a powerful bow, and never missed his aim. One day he was lost in the forest, having been led astray by a deer whom he had struck but failed to kill. While roaming about, he met a sage and asked him whether he had seen a deer running that way. The sage was observing a vow of silence, and did not reply. Angered at this, the king took up a dead snake with the end of his bow, placed it around the sage's neck, and went away. The son of the sage, hearing of this, cursed the king, saying that within a week he would be reduced to ashes by the bite of Takṣaka, king of the snakes. Hearing of the curse, the

¹ So called because he was begotten at the time of the decrease (parikṣiṇa) of the Kuru race.

sage was sorry, and warned the king; but in spite of elaborate precautions, the curse was fulfilled, and Parīkṣit died of snake-bite.

Parīksit's son, Janamejaya, now ascended the throne, and resolved to avenge his father's death by holding a snake sacrifice. Rsis by the force of their *mantras* caused the snakes in their thousands to fall into the sacrificial fire. However, Takṣaka's nephew, Āstīka, son of a snake princess and the ṛṣi Jaratkāru, won the king's favour, caused him to suspend the sacrifice, and saved the snakes from total destruction.

Here the kernel of the Epic account ends. It will be readily seen that it is a mixture of history and legend; but the historicity of the battle itself, and of the Kuru kings who ruled shortly afterwards, need not be doubted.

Turning once more to the Buddhist literature, we find numerous stories of kings of the Kuru land. For instance the Bodhisattva is described in the Dhammapada commentary as having once been born to the chief queen of the Kuru king (Dhanañjaya, according to the Kurudhamma Jātaka, Fausböll, Vol. II, pp. 366 foll.), in the capital city, Indapatta (Indraprastha). He went to Taxila to complete his education, and was then appointed a viceroy by his father. When he came to the throne, he, together with his family and his chief officials, used to obey the 'Kuru-dhamma'. This Kuru-dhamma consisted in the observance of the five 'sīlas' or rules of moral conduct, and it possessed the mystic virtue of bringing prosperity to the country. At this time the king of Kalinga was troubled by a dearth of rain in his kingdom. The Bodhisattva, king of the Kurus, had a royal elephant named Anjanavasabha, which was brought to the kingdom of Kalinga in the belief that its mere presence would bring rain. This device not having the expected result, it was concluded that rain did not fall in Kalinga because the Kuru-dhamma was not observed there; and Brahmins were sent to the kingdom of Kuru to make themselves acquainted with the Kurudhamma, and write it out for the king of Kalinga. Thereupon, King Kālinga observed the Kurudhamma faithfully, and forthwith the longed-for rain poured down in showers in his kingdom, and his crops were saved.1 The Kurudhamma Jātaka, cited above, also narrates this story, and there are further references to King 'Dhanañjaya Koravya' in other *Jātakas* (Cowell, Vol. IV, pp. 227–231; Vol. V, pp. 31–7; and *ibid.*, p. 246). In the latter passage we are told that the kingdom of Kuru extended over three hundred leagues. The king's chief minister is called Sucīrata in one story,2

² Jātaka (Fausböll), V, p. 57.

¹ Dhammapada Commentary, IV, pp. 88-9.

and Vidhūra in another.¹ In each case the king is said to have been very righteous and charitable. In yet another Jātaka version of the story, we are told, as usual, that there reigned in the city of Indapattana, in the kingdom of the Kurus, a king named Dhanañjaya, of the race of Yudhiṭṭhila (Yudhiṣṭhira). The Bodhisattva was born in the house of his family priest (not in the king's own family in this case). After learning all the arts at Taxila, he returned to Indapattana and after his father's death he became family priest and adviser to the king. He was called Vidhūrapaṇḍita.²

The story of King Dhanañjaya-korabba and his wise minister appears to have been very popular in Jātaka times, for its events find repeated mention in the tales. The Jātaka contains an account of further incidents concerning Dhanañjaya and Vidhūra, notably the defeat of Dhanañjaya at dice, and the meditation of Vidhūrapaṇḍita in a friendly rivalry between the king and Sakka (Indra).³

Though the Buddha principally confined his ministering activity to N.E. India, the Buddhist Pali texts show that he travelled widely over regions in Northern India; and the Kuru country too appears to have been favoured by his discourses (see, e.g. Aṅguttara Nikāya, Vol. V, pp. 29–32; Samyutta Nikāya, Vol. II, pp. 92-3; Ibid., pp. 107–9; Majjhina Nikāya, Vol. I, pp. 55 et seq.; Ibid., pp. 501 et seq.; Vol. II, pp. 261 et seq.; pp. 54 et seq.; Dhammapada Commentary, Vol. I, pp. 199–203 and cf. Ibid., Vol. III, pp. 193 et seq.; Dīgha Nikāya, Vol. II, pp. 55 et seq.; Ibid., pp. 290 et seq.). It is in nearly every case that the town of Kammāsadhamma is mentioned as the scene of the Buddha's discourses.

Some time before the fourth century B.C., the monarchical constitution of the Kurus gave place to a republic, for we are told by Kautilya 4 that the Kurus were ' $r\bar{a}ja$ -śabda-upajīvinaḥ', or 'enjoying the status of $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}s$ ',—i.e. all citizens had equal rank and rights.

The Kurus appear to have played some part in Indian politics as late as the ninth century A.D., for when Dharmapāla installed Cakrāyudha on the throne of Kanauj, he did so with the consent of the neighbouring powers, amongst whom the Kurus are specifically mentioned.⁵

¹ Jātaka (Fausböll), IV, p. 361.

² Ibid., VI, pp. 255 foll.

³ *Ibid.*, Vol. VI, pp. 255 foll.

⁴ See Shāma Shāstrī's translation of the *Arthasāstra*, p. 455. Shāma Shāstrī renders 'rāja-śabda-upajīvinaḥ' by 'lived by the title of a rājā', but this is too vague to convey the meaning. For a fuller discussion on the subject, see Chapter on the Licchavis.

⁵ Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 413.

CHAPTER IV

THE PAÑCĀLAS

The Pañcālas, like the Kurus, are most intimately connected with the Vedic civilization of the Brāhmana period. The Satabatha Brāhmana 1 tells us that they were called Krivis in ancient times. In an enumeration of the ancient monarchs who had performed the Aśvamedha sacrifice, a king Kraivya Pañcāla is mentioned, and it is definitely stated that Krivi was the ancient name of the Pañcāla tribe. Krivi appears as a tribal name in the Rgveda.² Zimmer is of the opinion that the Krivis resided in the region near the Sindhu and the Asikni in the Punjab, and the authors of the Vedic Index express the same view.3 But the only piece of evidence in favour of this hypothesis is that Krivi is mentioned in a verse of a Rgvedic hymn, in which the names of those rivers occur in a subsequent verse (VIII, 20, 25). The Rgveda does not clearly testify to any connection between the rivers and the people.

Zimmer 4 hazards another (more far-fetched) conjecture, viz. that the Pañcālas with the Kurus made up the Vaikarna people; and the Vedic Index 5 lends its support to this theory. only evidence in support of this view is that the word Vaikarna appears in the dual in a verse of the Rgveda, and the Kuru-Pañcālas appear combined as a dual people in the Brāhmana literature. are hardly justified in assuming any connection between these two facts, and moreover, it is doubtful whether 'Vaikarnayoh' in the Rgveda passage referred to, is a tribal name at all. Wilson following Sāyaṇa translates 'Vaikarṇayoh' by 'on the two banks (of the Parusnī)'.7 This meaning agrees very well with the context, as the subject-matter of the hymn is the crossing of the Parusni by King Sudās.

In the later Vedic Samhitās and the Brāhmana literature, the Pañcālas are frequently referred to, and often combined with the The Kāthaka Samhitā (XXX, 2) speaks of the Pañcālas as being the Vamsa or people of Kesin Dalbhya, and says that, as a result of certain rites performed by him, they were divided into

¹ XIII, 5, 4, 7.

² Yābhirdasasyathā Krivim, Rgveda, VIII, 20, 24; Yābhiḥ Krivim vāvrdhuḥ, Rgveda, VIII, 22, 12.

³ Vedic Index, I, 198.

⁴ Altindisches Leben, 103. ⁵ Vedic Index, I, 198. ⁶ Vaikarnayoh, Rgveda, VII, 18, 11.

⁷ Wilson, Rgveda, Vol. IV, p. 59.

three parts. The same Samhitā (X, 6) refers to the celebration of the Naimisiva sacrifice in the country of the Kuru-Pañcālas. Here a discussion between Vaka-Dālbhya and Dhrtarāstra Vaicitravīrya is narrated, but there is nothing to justify Weber's conjecture of a quarrel between the Pañcālas and the Kurus. In the Aitareya Brāhmana, the Pañcālas are mentioned along with the Kurus as one of the peoples in the Madhyamā dik or midland. Similarly, the Kuru-Pañcālas are mentioned in the Kānva recension of the Vājasaneyi Samhitā (XI, 3, 3,). In the Jaiminīya Upanisad Brāhmaṇa, the Kuru-Pañcālas are mentioned many times, and in the Gopatha Brāhmana (I, 2, 9), they are referred to as a dual group beside other similar groups, such as the Anga-Magadhas, Kāśī-Kośalas, Śalva-Matsyas, etc. The Śatapatha Brāhmana assures us that 'speech sounds higher here among the Kuru-Pañcālas', and also informs us that the kings of the Kuru-Pañcālas performed the rājasūya or royal sacrifice. The Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa (I, 8. 4, 1, 2) says that the kings of the Kuru-Pañcālas marched forth on raids in the dewy season and returned in the hot season.2 The Kausītakī Upanisad (IV, 1) also speaks of the Kuru-Pañcālas, and in the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad they are repeatedly mentioned,—as, for instance, when we read 3 that the Brāhmanas of the Kurus and the Pañcālas flocked to the court of Janaka, king of Videha. A Vedic teacher, Pañcāla-Canda by name, is mentioned in the Aitareya and the Sānkhāyana Āranyakas, and most probably this sage belonged to the Pañcāla country, as his name suggests.

The Bṛhadāraṇyaka (VI, I, I) and Chāndogya Upaniṣad (V, 3, I) tell how Śvetaketu Āruṇeya went to the assembly (pariṣad) of the Pañcālas where the Kṣaṭriya, Pravāhaṇa Jaivali, put to him several questions which neither Śvetaketu nor his father was able to answer. Śvetaketu's father, though a Brāhmaṇa, was glad to learn the answers to these questions from Pravāhaṇa Jaivali, although the latter was a Rājanya or Ksaṭriya.⁵

Several of the Pañcāla kings are mentioned in the Vedic literature. For instance, Durmukha was a great and powerful king of the Pañcālas, who, according to the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (VIII, 23) made extensive conquests in every direction. Another powerful Pañcāla king who performed the horse sacrifice was Sona Sātrāsāha, about whom several gāthās are quoted in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.6

The name Pañcala has given rise to much speculation, it being supposed that the first part, Pañca ('five'), has something to do with

¹ S.B.E., Vol. XXVI, p. 50.

² Vedic Index, I, 165.

³ Byh. Up., III, 1, 1.

⁴ Vedic Index, I, p. 469.

⁵ See also Chāndogya Up., I, 8, 1-2, for another mention of Pravāhana Jaivali.

⁶ S.B.E., Vol. XLIV, p. 400.

five tribes that were merged together into a united nation. The evidence in favour of this hypothesis is not very clear. It has been suggested that the five peoples are the five tribes of the Rgveda. but, as the Vedic Index (I, 469) points out, the suggestion is not very The problem of the origin of the name Pancala and its probable connection with Pañca, five, struck the authors of the Purānas. Many of them traced the name to five princes, whose names vary slightly in different works. In the Bhāgavataburāna, oth Skandha, Chap. 21, we learn that King Bharmāśva, born in the family of Dusmanta, had five sons, Mudgala, Yavinara, Vrhadviśa, Kāmpilya, and Sañjaya. As these five sons were capable of guarding the five countries, they were named Pañcāla (alam = sufficient for, capable of). Then in the Visnupurāna, Chap. 19, Anka 4, we are told that Haryaśva, born in the family of Kuru, had five sons, Mudgala, Sriñjaya, Vrhadisu, Pravīra and Kāmpīlya. He was under the impression that his five sons were competent to protect five provinces, and they became famous as Pañcālas. Vāyupurāna (Chap. 99) tells us that Rksa, born in the family of Dvimīdha, had five sons, Mudgala, Srinjaya, Vrhadisu, Yavīyāna and Kāmpīlva. The provinces of these five afterwards became famous as Pañcāla. Similarly, in the Agnipurāņa (Chap. 278) we read that Vāhyāśva, born in the family of Kuru, had five sons, Mukula, Sriñjaya, Vrhadisu, Yavinara and Krimila, who were known as Pañcālas. In the Samhitobanisad Brāhmana, there is a reference to the Prācya Pañcālas.2

In the Epic, the Pañcāla country is divided into a northern and a southern part, so that evidently the Pañcālas had spread and added to their country by conquest since the Vedic period. There is a Jātaka story about the foundation of Uttara-Pañcāla, which seems to show that a Cedi prince went to the north and formed the Uttara-Pañcāla kingdom with colonists from the Pañcāla and Cedi countries. The Cetiya Jātaka tells us that the king of Ceti (Cedi) had five sons. Kapila, the family priest, said to the fourth prince: 'You leave by the north gate and go straight on till you see a wheelframe all made of jewels: that will be a sign that you are to lay out a city there and dwell in it, and it shall be called Uttard-Pañcāla'.

The $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ gives a different story of the division of the Pañcāla country. There, in the $\bar{A}diparvan$, we read that the Brahmin Drona and Prince Drupada had been friends in their boyhood. But their friendship changed to enmity in their manhood when Drupada, on being raised to the throne, treated the poor

¹ Pargiter, The North Pañchāla Dynasty, J.R.A.S., 1918, pp. 229 foll.

² Vedic Index, I, p. 469.

³ Jātaka (Fausböll), III, pp. 460-1.

Brahmin's son with contempt. Drona, bent upon taking revenge. taught the science of war to the youths of the rival clan of the Kurus and, when their education was completed, he one day called all his pupils together and bade them seize Drupada, King of Pañcāla, in battle, and bring him captive. That, said Drona, would be the most acceptable teacher's fee (daksinā) for him. A great battle ensued, in which the Pañcālas were defeated and their capital attacked. Drupada was seized and offered to Drona by his disciples. Drona asked Drupada whether he would desire to revive old friendship, and told him that he would grant him half his kingdom as a boon. Drupada accepted the offer. Drona then took the northern half of the kingdom which came to be known as Uttara-Pañcāla: while Drupada ruled over the other half, known as Southern Pañcāla. That is to say, the country extending from the river Bhagirathi to the river Carmanvatī in the south, with its capital at Kāmpilya, fell to Drupada's share, and the northern half with its capital at Ahicchatra was taken over by Drona.1

The plain of the Kurus, the (country of the) Matsyas, Pañcālas and Śūrasenakas—these, according to Manu, formed the land of the Brahmarsis, ranking immediately after Brahmāvarta.²

One of the earliest cities of Pañcāla was Parivakṛā or Paricakrā, where King Kraivya Pañcāla performed his horse sacrifice. Another city, Kāmpīla, appears to have been mentioned in the Yajurveda Saṃhitā, where 'the epithet Kāmpīla-vāsinī is applied to a woman, perhaps the mahiṣī or chief wife of the king, whose duty it was to sleep beside the slaughtered animal of the horse sacrifice (Aśvamedha). The exact interpretation of the passagé is very uncertain, but both Weber and Zimmer agree in regarding Kāmpīla as the name of the town known as Kāmpīlya in the later literature, and the capital of Pañcāla in Madhyadeśa'. The Viṣṇupurāṇa (Chap. II) and the Bhāgavatapurāṇa (Chap. 22) say that Kāmpīlya, son of King Haryaśva, was celebrated as Pañcāla. Among the hundred sons of Nīpa of the Ajamīḍa dynasty, Samara is mentioned as the king of Kāmpīlya. We have seen that Kāmpīlya became the capital of King Drupada when he was invested with the sovereignty of the

¹ Mbh., Ādiparvan, Chap. 140. Rapson (Ancient India, p. 167) says: 'In history, they (i.e. the Pañcālas) are sometimes divided into two kingdoms—South Pañchāla, the country between the Jumna and Ganges to the east and south-east of the Kurus and Sūrasenas, and North Pañchāla, districts of the United Provinces lying east of the Ganges and north-west of the Province of Oudh...' Cunningham (Ancient Geography, p. 360) says: 'The great kingdom of Pañcāla extended from the Himalaya mountains to the Chambal river'.

² Manusamhitā, II, 19.

⁴ Vedic Index, Vol. I, 149.

³ Vide ante.

⁵ Vişnupurāna, IV, 19.

southern Pañcāla country. In the Ādikāṇḍa of the Rāmāyaṇa (Sarga 33) we are told that King Brahmadatta used to live in the city of Kāmpīlya. Cunningham identifies Kāmpīlya with Kampil, on the old Ganges between Budaon and Farokhabad.¹ According to N. L. Dey,² it was situated at a distance of 28 miles north-east of Fatgarh in the Farokhabad district. It was the scene of the svayamvara of Drupada's daughter, Kṛṣṇā or Draupadī, who became the wife of the five sons of Pāṇḍu. Drupada's palace is pointed out as the most easterly of the isolated mounds on the bank of the Bur-Gaṅgā.³

Ahicchatra, where Drona established his capital, as we have seen, was another notable town of the Pañcālas. When the Kuru army was marshalled on the field, it is stated that their rear extended as far as the city of Ahicchatra 4; so that northern Pañcāla was contiguous with the Kuru land, and not very far from the Kurukṣetra battle-field. According to Cunningham, the history of Ahicchatra goes back to 1430 B.C. The name is written Ahikṣetra, as well as Ahi-cchatra, but the local legend of the Ādi-Rājā and the Naga suggests that Ahi-cchatra is the correct form, for Ahicchatra means 'Serpent Umbrella'. This grand old fort is said to have been built by Raja Adi, an Ahir, whose future elevation to sovereignty was foretold by Drona, when he found him sleeping under the guardianship of a serpent with expanded hood. The fort is also called Adikot, but the more common name is Ahicchatra.⁵ The form of the name in Ptolemy by a slight alteration becomes Adisadra, which has been satisfactorily identified with Ahicchatra.6 According to V. A. Smith, Ahicchatra City is the modern Rāmnagar in the Bareilly district. It was still a considerable town when visited by Hsüan Tsang in the seventh century.7 The name of the city, it appears, was extended to the whole of the country of Uttara-Pañcāla, for we find the Chinese pilgrim giving a description of the 'country' of Ahicchatra. He observes that it was about 3,000 li in circuit and the capital about 17 or 18 li. It was naturally strong, being flanked by mountain crags. It produced wheat, and there were many woods and fountains. The climate was agreeable and the people sincere and truthful. They loved religion, and applied themselves to learn-

¹ Cunningham, Ancient Geography, p. 360; Uvāsagadasāo, Vol. II, p. 106.

<sup>Geographical Dictionary, p. 33.
N. L. Dey, op. cit., p. 33. See also Mahābhārata, Ādiparvan, Chap. 94, pp. 181-2.</sup>

⁴ Mahābhārata, V, Chap. 19.

⁵ Cunningham, Ancient Geography, p. 360.

⁶ McCrindle, Ancient India as described by Ptolemy, p. 133. 7 Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., pp. 391-392.

ing. There were about 10 saṅghārāmas and some 1,000 priests who studied the Hīnayāna; and also some 9 deva temples with 300 sectaries. They sacrificed to Īśvara and belonged to the company of 'ashes-sprinklers' (Pāśupatas). Outside the chief town was a Nāga tank by the side of which was a stūpa built by King Aśoka. It was here that the Tathāgata (Buddha) preached the law for the sake of a Nāga-rāja for seven days. By the side of it were four little stūpas.¹

In modern times, Ahicchatra was first visited by Capt. Hodgson, who describes it as the ruins of an ancient fortress several miles in circumference, which appears to have had 34 bastions, and is known in the neighbourhood by the name of the Pāndu's fort.²

In the kingdom of Pañcāla there also existed the city of Kānyakubja.³ R. D. Banerjee, on the authority of a copper plate discovered at Khalimpura, points out that the kings of the Bhojas, Matsyas, Kurus, Yadus and Yavanas were forced to acknowledge Cakrāyudha as the king of Kānyakubja.⁴

Many are the stories told about the Pañcālas and their dealings with the Kurus. In the \$\overline{A}diparvan^5\$ we read that there was a king named Sambaraṇa, father of Kuru, of the Puru dynasty, who was the ruler of the world. At one time his kingdom was much afflicted, his subjects died, and disorder prevailed everywhere. The kingdom was afterwards conquered by the King of Pañcāla, and Sambaraṇa fled with his wife and children to a forest on the banks of the river Sindhu.

In connection with the expedition resulting in the victory of Bhīmasena, we note that Bhīmasena went to the east, attacked the Pañcāla country and brought it under his sway.⁶ At the outset of his expedition, Karṇa also attacked Pañcāla, defeated Drupada, and exacted tribute from him and his subordinate kings.⁷

During the Kurukṣetra war, Drupada, king of the Pañcālas, helped the Pāṇḍavas with his son, Dhṛṣṭadyumna, and an akṣauhiṇī of troops ⁸; and Dhṛṣṭadyumna was made the commander-in-chief of the entire Pāṇḍava force. Various kinds of horses are described as having been used by the famous heroes of Pañcāla during the war. ⁹ In the *Udyogaparvan* we read that Yudhāmanyu and

¹ Beal, Buddhist Records of the Western World, Vol. I, pp. 200-201.

² McCrindle, Ancient India as described by Ptolemy, p. 134.

³ Epigraphia Indica, Vol. IV, p. 246. 4 Vāngālār Itihāsa, Pt. I, pp. 167-8.

⁶ Chap. 94, p. 104. ⁶ Sabhāparvan, Chap. 29, p. 241.

⁷ Mahābhārata, Vangavāsī Edn., Vanaparvan, Chap. 253, p. 513.

Udyogaparvan, Chaps. 156-7, pp. 777-8.
 See Dronaparvan, Chap. 22, pp. 1012-13.

Uttamañjā, two other princes of Pañcāla, went to the battle-field.¹ They were killed by Dhṛṭarāṣṭra's army. Mitravarmā and Kṣatra-dharmā, the Pañcāla heroes, were killed by Droṇa; and Kṣatradeva, son of Śikhaṇḍī, was killed by Lakṣmaṇa, son of Duryodhana.²

Pañcāla continued to be one of the great and powerful countries of Northern India, down to the time when the Buddha lived. The Aṅguttara Nikāya mentions it as one of the sixteen mahājanapadas of 'Jambudīpa', having an abundance of the seven kinds of gems, etc.³ Pañcāla had a large army consisting of foot-soldiers, men skilful in fight and in the use of steel weapons.⁴

We read in the Kumbhakāra Jātakā that in the kingdom of Uttara-Pañcāla, in the city of Kampilla, there was a king named Dummukha, who became a Pacceka-buddha. We have seen before that Durmukha was the name of one of the powerful Pañcāla sovereigns in the Vedic period. A Pañcāla monarch of the same name is also mentioned in the Jaina works.

In the Gandatindu Jātaka we read that during the reign of Pañcāla, king of Kampilla, the people were so much oppressed by taxation that they took their wives and families and wandered in the forest like wild beasts. By day they were plundered by the king's men and by night by robbers.⁶

The Samyutta Nikāya narrates that once while the Buddha was staying at Vaiśālī, Visākha of the Pañcālas was in the meeting hall where he distinguished himself by his pious discourse. Visākha was the son of the daughter of the king of the Pañcālas, and afterwards became known as the Pañcālī's son. After the death of his father, he succeeded to his title, but when the Buddha came to his neighbourhood, he went to hear him, believed, and left the world.

Pañcāla and its princes also figure in the Jaina literature. It is stated in the *Uttarādhyayana Sūtra* that the king of the Pañcālas did no fearful actions. The Jain writers also refer to Brahmadatta, king of the Pañcālas, and to Dvimukha of Pañcāla, who was a Pratyekabuddha. 11

¹ Udyogaparvan, Chap. 198, pp. 807-8. See also Bhīşmaparvan, Chap. 19, p. 830.

² Karnaparvan, Chap. 6, p. 1169.
3 Vol. I (P.T.S.), 213; IV, 252, 256, 260.

⁴ Jātaka (Fausböll), VI, p. 396.

⁵ *Ibid.*, III, p. 379.
6 *Ibid.*, Vol. V, p. 99.

⁷ The Book of the Kindred Sayings, II, p. 190.

⁸ Psalms of the Brethren, pp. 152-3; vide also Thera-therigāthā, P.T.S., p. 27.

⁹ S.B.E., Vol. XLV, Jaina Sūtras, Pt. II, p. 60.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 61.

In the post-Aśokan period Pañcāla was invaded by the Greeks, as we infer from the $G\bar{a}rg\bar{\imath}$ Saṃhitā, which is dated about the second or third century A.D.¹

In the sixth and fifth centuries B.C., the Pañcālas were a monarchical clan, but became a saṅgha (probably an oligarchy) in the fourth century, when Kauṭilya lived. In Kauṭilya's Arthaśāstra we read that the corporation of Pañcāla 'lived by the title of rājā'. The change was very probably brought about in the following way. Members of the royal family were often given a share in the administration of a country, and in proportion as this share became less and less formal, the state organization would lose the form of absolute monarchy and approach that of an oligarchy.

Sir Charles Eliot notes that the kingdom of Pañcāla passed through troublous times after the death of Harṣavardhana, but from about 840-910 A.D. under Bhoja and his son, it became the principal power in Northern India, extending from Bihar to Sind. In the twelfth century, it again became important under the Gaharwar

dynasty.4

In the district of Bareilly in the United Provinces, many old copper coins have been discovered amongst the ruins of ancient Ahicchatra. The word 'mitra' occurs at the end of the names of the kings engraved on the coins. In many places of the United Provinces, coins of this kind are discovered every year. There are three symbols above the names of the kings. Carlyle of the Archaeological Dept. explains the symbols as Bodhi tree, Sivalingam surrounded by snakes, and stupa covered by fungus. Such coins are found in large numbers at Ahicchatra, so Cunningham calls them Pañcāla-mudrā. They generally weigh 250 grs., the smaller ones weighing not less than 16 grs. 6 According to the Cambridge History,7 several Pañcala coins have on the obverse Agni, with head of flames, standing between posts on railing, on the reverse, in incuse, Agimitasa: above, three symbols. Whether Agnimitra whose coins are found in North Pañcala and who was, therefore, presumably king of Ahicchatra, can be identified with the Sunga king of that name, is uncertain.8

¹ See Max Müller, India, What can it teach us? 1883, p. 298.

² 'Rājasabdopajīvinah'—Arthasāstra, Shāma Śāstrī's Translation, p. 455.

<sup>Carmichael Lectures, 1918, p. 165.
Hinduism and Buddhism, Vol. I, p. 27.</sup>

⁵ For a detailed discussion, see B. C. Law, Panchālas and their Capital Ahichchhatra, M.A.S.I., No. 67, pp. 12 foll.

⁶ R. D. Banerjee, *Prācīna Mudrā*, pp. 106-7. 7 Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 538.

⁸ Ibid., p. 520.

The method of striking the early coins was peculiar, in that the die was impressed on the metal when hot, so that a deep square incuse, which coins the device, appears on the coin. A similar incuse appears on the later double-die coins of Pañcāla, Kauśāmbī, and on some coins of Mathurā. This method of striking may have been introduced from Persia, and was perhaps a derivative from the art of seal-engraving.¹ Brown says that there is little foreign influence traceable in the die-struck coins, all closely connected in point of style, which issued during the first and second centuries B.C. from Pañcāla, Ayodhyā, Kauśāmbī and Mathurā. A number of these bear Brāhmī inscriptions and the names of ten kings, which some would identify with the old Śuṅga dynasty, have been recovered from the copper and brass coins of Pañcāla, found in abundance at Rāmnagar in Rohilkhand, the site of the ancient city, Ahicchatra.²

¹ Brown, Coins of India, p. 19.

² Ibid., p. 20.

CHAPTER V

THE SURASENAS

The Śūrasenas are not mentioned in the Vedic literature, but in the Mānavadharma-śāstra they are spoken of in high terms as belonging to the Brahmarṣi-deśa, or the country of the great Brahmanical seers, whose conduct was an example to all Aryans.¹ Accordingly at the time of Manu's Code (between the second century B.C. and the second century A.D.), the Śūrasenas were among the tribes who occupied a rank in Indo-Aryan society second only to that of the small population of the narrow strip of Brahmāvarta. Therefore they must have belonged to the Vedic people, though probably they had not acquired sufficient political importance in very early times to find a mention in the Rgveda or the subsequent Vedic literature. They claimed descent from Yadu, a hero whose people are repeatedly referred to in the Rgveda²; and it is probable that the Śūrasenas were included among the Rgvedic Yadus.

Manu also pays a high tribute to the martial qualities of the Sūrasenas, inasmuch as he advises a king when arranging his troops on the battle-field, to place the Sūrasenas in the very front line.³

In an enumeration in the Mahābhārata of the various peoples of Bhāratavarṣa, the Śūrasenas are mentioned along with the Śālvas, Kuru-Pañcālas and other neighbouring tribes; and we read in the Virāṭaparvan (Chaps. I and V) that the Pāṇḍavas passed through the Śūrasena country on their way to Virāṭanagara, from the Dvaitavana forest, where they had sojourned during their exile. It is easy to locate the Śūrasenas, inasmuch as their capital, Mathurā, has been a great city from the early times of Indo-Aryan history down to the present day. They must have occupied 'the Muttra district and possibly some of the territory still farther south', according to the Cambridge History of India. Prof. Rhys Davids says : 'The Śūrasenas, whose capital was Madhurā, were immediately southwest of the Macchas, and west of the Jumna'.

In the *Rāmāyaṇa*,⁷ we read that Sugrīva, when sending out his monkey generals in search of Sītā, told those who were going towards

¹ Manusamhitā, II, 19; and see Matsya chapter.

² Vedic Index, II, 185.

⁴ Mbh., Bhīşmaparvan, Chap. 9, p. 822.

⁵ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 316.

⁷ Kişkindhyā Kāṇḍa, 11-12, 43rd sarga.

³ Manusamhitā, VII, 193.

⁶ Buddhist India, p. 27.

the north to search the country of the Sūrasenas. Bhagavadgītā section of the Mahābhārata, the Śūrasenas are mentioned as forming part of the army of Duryodhana in the Kuruksetra war. They guarded Bhīsma, and took a prominent part in the battle, to the point of having their army destroyed.1 Elsewhere in the Mahābhārata,2 we read that Sahadeva, while proceeding southwards in the course of his conquests before the Rajasūva sacrifice. conquered the country of Sūrasenas.

In the Pāli Buddhist Tripitaka, Sūrasena is mentioned as one of the sixteen 'mahājanabadas' which were prosperous and had an abundance of wealth.3 One of the Jataka stories narrates how the Śūrasenas, along with the Pañcālas, Matsyas and Madras, witnessed a game of dice between Dhanañjaya Korabba and Punnaka Yakkha.4

The capital of the Śūrasenas, as we have seen, was Mathurā on the Jumna, at present included in the Agra division of the United Provinces. It lay on the upper Jumna, about 270 miles in a straight line north-west of Kauśambī. In the Pali Buddhist literature, the name is Madhurā; Rhys Davids in his Buddhist India (p. 36) says that it is tempting to identify it with the site of the modern Mathura. in spite of the difference in spelling. In the Lalitavistara, 5 the city of Mathura is mentioned as having been suggested as a possible locality for the birth of the Bodhisattva, when various places were being discussed by the gods in the Tusita heaven. From this it is evident that at the time that the Lalitavistara was composed, that is, in the early centuries of the Christian era, Mathura was one of the most prominent cities of India.

The Greek historians make mention of Mathura. It was noticed by Arrian, on the authority of Megasthenes, as the capital of the Surasenas; and Ptolemy also mentions it. The town was surrounded by numbers of high mounds, one of which has since yielded numbers of statues and inscribed pillars, which prove that it represented the remains of at least two large Buddhist monasteries dating from the beginning of the Christian era.7

In the fifth century A.D., Mathura was visited by the Chinese pilgrim Fā-Hien, who passed through a succession of monasteries

¹ Bhīṣmaparvan, Chap. 106, p. 974; Ibid., Chaps. 107-121, pp. 906-993; Dronaparvan, Chap. 6, pp. 998-9; Ibid., Chap. 19, p. 1009; Karnaparvan, Chap. 5. pp. 1167-8.

Sabhāparvan, Chap. 31, pp. 242-3.
 Anguttara Nikāya, I, p. 213; Ibid., IV, pp. 252, 256 and 260.

⁵ Ed. Lefmann, pp. 21-2. 4 Fausböll, Jātaka, Vol. VI, p. 280.

⁶ Cunningham, Ancient Geography, (Majumder's Ed.), p. 429. The Greek writers also make mention of another city of the Surasena country, named Cleisobora (=Krsnapur=Brndāban).

⁷ Cunningham, Ancient Geography, p. 374.

filled with a number of monks.¹ It was also visited later by Hsüan Tsang who described the country as being above 5,000 li in circuit, the capital being above twenty li in circuit. The soil, according to him, was very fertile, and agriculture was the chief industry: mango trees were grown there in orchards. The country also produced a fine striped cotton cloth, and gold. Its climate was hot, the manners and customs of the inhabitants were good. There were Buddhist monasteries, and deva-temples, and the professed adherents of the different non-Buddhist sects lived pell-mell.²

Buddhism was predominant in Mathurā for several centuries.³ The king of Mathurā in the Buddha's time bore the title of Avantiputto, and was therefore related to the royal family of Ujjayinī in Avanti. In the *Majjhima Nikāya* (II, pp. 83ff.) we read that king Avantiputto went to Mahākaccāna, one of the Buddha's most influential disciples, and discussed with him the pride of the Brāhmaṇas, and their view that they were vastly superior to all other castes. Mathurā was the residence of Mahākaccāna, 'to whom tradition attributes the first grammatical treatment of the Pāli language, and after whom the oldest Pāli grammar is accordingly named'.⁴ In Kaccāyana's Pāli Grammar we read that the distance from Mathurā to Saṅkassa was 4 yojanas.⁵ A famous stūpa was built at Mathurā in honour of Moggaliputta Tissa (*Cambridge History of India*, Vol. I, p. 506).

Mathurā was visited by the Buddha,6 but we do not find many references to the city in his time; whereas it is mentioned in the *Milindapañho* as one of the most famous places in India; so that the time of its greatest growth must have been between these dates.⁷

Besides Buddhism, the Jaina cult was also practised at Mathurā which was one of the few centres of the cult in the centuries immediately before and after the Christian era.⁸ The Jains seem to have been firmly established in the city from the middle of the second century B.C.; while many dedicatory inscriptions prove that they were a flourishing community at Mathurā in the reigns of Kaniṣka, Huviṣka and Vāsudeva.⁹

¹ Legge, Travels of Fā-Hien, p. 42.

Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. I, p. 301.

⁸ Eliot, Hinduism and Buddhism, Vol. II, p. 159.

⁴ Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 36.

<sup>Book III, Chap. I, p. 157, S. C. Vidyābhūṣaṇa's edition.
Anguttara Nikāya, II, 57; Vimānavatthu Comm., pp. 118-9.</sup>

⁷ Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 37.

⁸ Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 18; and Rapson, Ancient India, p. 174.

⁹ Eliot, Hinduism and Buddhism, Vol. I, p. 113.

Mathurā was also known in the time of Megasthenes (300 B.C.) as the centre of Kṛṣṇa worship¹; it was well known as the birth-place of the hero Kṛṣṇa.² Cunningham points out³ that Śūrasena was the grandfather of Kṛṣṇa, and after him Kṛṣṇa and his descendants, who held Mathurā after the death of Kaṃsa, were called the Śūrasenas.

Another cult which arose in Mathurā was the Bhāgavata religion, the parent of modern Vaiṣṇavism 4; but in the Śaka-Kushan period, the city had ceased to be a stronghold of Bhagavatism. 5 The paucity of Bhāgavata inscriptions at Mathurā probably indicates that Bhagavatism did not find much favour at the royal court, because from the first century B.C. to the third century A.D., the people were usually Buddhists. 6

Mathurā, then, was a city in which many divergent religious sects flourished side by side. To the Hindus its sanctity was, and still is, very great. As the birthplace of Kṛṣṇa, it was and is one of the seven holy places of Hinduism.

In the semi-legendary accounts of the Purāṇas, we find some details regarding Mathurā. In the Viṣṇupurāṇa for instance, we read that Lavana, son of the monster Madhu, was killed by Satrughna who founded the city of Mathurā.⁸ The demons attacked Mathurā, the home of the Vṛṣṇis and Andhakas; and the Vṛṣṇis and Andhakas, being afraid of the demons, left Mathurā and established their capital at Dvārāvatī. Mathurā was also besieged by Jarāsandha, king of Magadha, with a huge army of 23 akṣauhinīs. At the time of his 'great departure' (mahāprasthāna), Yudhiṣṭhira installed Vajranābha on the throne of the city.

The earlier rulers of Mathurā find a place in the Purāṇas,¹³ but only in the general summary of those dynasties which were contemporary with the Purus. On the eve of the rise of the Gupta power, says the Vāyupurāṇa (Chap. 99), seven nāga kings reigned in Mathurā. They were followed by Magadha kings.¹⁴

10 Harivamśa, Chap. 37.

¹ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 167.

² See, e.g. Hopkins, The Great Epic of India, p. 395, n. 1.

³ Ancient Geography, p. 374.

⁴ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 526.

⁵ H. C. Ray Chaudhuri, Early History of the Vaisnava Sect, p. 99.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 100.

⁷ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 316.

^{8 4}th Amsa, Chap. 4.

⁹ Brahmapurāna, Chap. 14, śloka 54.

¹¹ Ibid., Chap. 195, śloka, 3.

Skandapurāna, Viṣnukhanḍa; Bhāgavata Māhātmya, Chap. I.
 Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 526.

¹⁴ Vişnupurāna, 4th Amsa, Chap. 23.

As regards Buddhist semi-historical records, we read in the Lalitavistara ¹ of a king of the Śūrasenas named Suvāhu, who had his capital at Mathurā. He is said to have been a heretic, but a great king of Jambudīpa (India).² Mathurā is also mentioned in the earliest chronicle of Ceylon, the Dīpavaṃsa,³ where we are told that sons and grandsons of Prince Sādhina reigned 'over the great

kingdom of Madhurā, the best of towns'.

In the Ghata Iātaka we read that in Upper Madhurā there reigned a king named Mahāsāgara, who had two sons, Sāgara and Upasagara. On his death the elder son became king and the younger Viceroy (= heir-apparent?). Upasāgara quarrelled with Sāgara and went to Uttarapatha in the Kamsa district, to the city of Asitanjana which was ruled over by King Mahākamsa, who had two sons, Kamsa and Upakamsa, and one daughter, Devagabbhā. It was foretold that this daughter would bear a son who would kill his maternal uncles. Believing this prediction, on the death of King Mahākamsa the two brothers kept their sister in a separate round tower specially built for her, so that she should remain unmarried. But despite their precautions, Devagabbhā and Upasāgara saw each other, fell in love, and contrived to meet. When her brothers discovered the intrigue, they gave Devagabbhā in marriage to Upasāgara, and a daughter was born soon afterwards. The two brothers were pleased, and allotted to their sister and brother-in-law a village named Govaddhamāna. In course of time, Devagabbhā gave birth to ten sons, and her serving woman Nandagopā to ten daughters. Devagabbhā, however, secretly exchanged her ten sons for the ten daughters of her maid. When the boys grew up, they became plunderers and their fosterfather, Andhaka-Venhu, was often rebuked by King Kamsa. At last Andhaka-Venhu told the king the secret of the birth of the ten sons. An arena was prepared for a wrestling match in the city. When the ten sons entered the ring and were about to be caught, the eldest of the ten, Vāsudeva, threw a wheel which cut off the heads of Kamsa and Upakamsa, and himself assumed the sovereignty of the city of Asitanjana.4 The Jataka story ends with the accession of Vasudeva to the throne of Mathura. The *Petavatthu* Commentary gives a different story of the adventure of the ten sons who were born to the king of Uttara-Madhurā.5

¹ Ed. Lefmann, pp. 21-2.

² Romantic Legend of Sākya Buddha, p. 29.

<sup>Oldenberg, Dīpavamsa, p. 27.
Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. IV, pp. 79 foll.</sup>

⁵ Petavatthu Comm., III ff.; see also B. C. Law, Buddhist Conception of Spirits, 2nd Ed., p. 99.

A king of Mathura named Brahmamitra was probably contemporary with king Indramitra of Ahicchatra, for both names are found in the dedicatory inscriptions of queens on pillars of the railing at Buddhagayā, which is generally assigned to the earlier part of the first century B.C.¹ Rapson points out ² that in the second century B.C. Mathura was governed by native princes whose names are known from their coins; and it passed from them into the possession of one of the families of Saka satraps, c. 100 B.C. Menander (Milinda). king of Kabul and the Punjab, presumably occupied Mathura, and many of his coins have been discovered there. Mumismatic evidence seems to prove 5 that the Hindu kings of Mathura were finally replaced by Hagana, Hagamasha, Rajuvula, and other Saka Satraps who probably flourished in or about the first century A.D. In the second century A.D. Mathurā was under the sway of Huvishka. the Kushān king. This is evidenced by a splendid Buddhist monastery which bears his names.6

The epigraphic evidence that in the first century B.C. the region of Mathura had passed from native Indian to foreign (Saka) rule is confirmed and amplified by the evidence of coins. A Muttra (i.e. Mathura) inscription, according to R. Chanda, records the erection of a torana, vedikā and catuhšāla at the Mahāsthāna of Vāsudeva. in the reign of the Mahākṣatrapa Sodāsa.7 The Mathurā nāga statuette inscription is evidence of serpent worship in Mathura, which is important in view of the story of Kāliya nāga and his suppression by Krsna, recorded in the Puranas compiled during the Gupta period.8

Brown 9 says that cast coins were issued at the close of the third century by the kingdoms of Mathura, Ayodhya and Kauśambi, some of which bear the names of local kings in the Brāhmī script. In the ruins of Mathura, many ancient copper coins along with many coins of the Greek and Saka rulers were discovered. 10 Among the coins discovered in this region, those of the Arjunayanas are of special interest.11

The Pre-Kushan sculptures of Muttra are the most instructive, because they all emanate from the same school. These sculptures may be divided into three main classes, the earliest belonging approxi-

¹ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 526.

² Ancient India, p. 174.

³ Smith, Early History of India, p. 199. ⁴ R. D. Banerjee, Prācīna Mudrā, p. 50.

⁵ Smith, op. cit., p. 227.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 271.

Early History of the Vaisnava Sect, pp. 98-9. ⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 100. 10 Prācīna Mudrā, pp. 105, 106. Coins of India, p. 19.

¹¹ Cunningham, Coins of India, pp. 89-90; see also R. D. Banerjee's Prācīna Mudrā, p. 109.

mately to the middle of the second century B.C., the second to the following century, and the last being associated with the rule of the local Satraps. The sculptures of the third class are more exceptional. Their style is that of the early school in a late and decadent phase. when its cut was becoming conventionalised and lifeless. before the beginning of the Christian era, Muttra had become the capital of a satrapy either subordinate to, or closely connected with, the Scytho-Parthian kingdom of Taxila. As a result, there was an influx there of the semi-Hellenistic Art, too weak in its environment to maintain its own individuality, yet still strong enough to interrupt and enervate the older traditions of Hindusthan . . . As an illustration of the close relations that existed between Muttra and the north-west, the votive tables of Lona-sobhikā is particularly significant, the stupa depicted on it being identical in form with the stupas of the Scytho-Parthian epoch at Taxila, but unlike any monument of the class in Hindusthan. Sir Charles Eliot points out 2 that we need not feel surprise if we find in the religious thought of Muttra elements traceable to Greece, Persia or Central Asia. because we know that the sculptural remains found at Mathurā indicate the presence of Graeco-Bactrian influence.

Smith remarks 3 that Mathura was probably the original site of the celebrated iron pillar at Delhi, on which the culogy of a powerful king named Chandra is incised. As Rapson says, we possess a most valuable monument of the Saka Satraps of Mathura, which was discovered by Bhagavānlāl Indrajī, who bequeathed it to the British Museum. 'It is in the form of a large lion carved in red sandstone and intended to be the capital of a pillar. The workmanship shows undoubted Persian influence. The surface is completely covered with inscriptions in Kharosthi characters which give the genealogy of the Satrapal family ruling at Muttra. These inscriptions show that the

Satraps of Muttra were Buddhists'.4

¹ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 633.

² Hinduism and Buddhism, Vol. II, p. 158.

³ Early History of India, p. 386.

⁴ Rapson, Ancient India, pp. 142-3, 158.

CHAPTER VI

THE CEDIS

The Cedis formed one of the most ancient tribes among the Kṣatriyas in early Vedic times. As early as the period of the Rgveda, the Cedi kings had acquired great renown by their munificent gifts at sacrifices, and also by their great prowess in battle. Rṣi Brahmātithi of the family of Kāṇva sings the praises of King Kaśu, the Caidya, in a hymn addressed to the Aśvins (Rgveda, VIII, 5, 37–9). From this account, even making allowances for some exaggeration, which is inevitable in these Dānastutis or laudatory verses for munificence and charity, one may conclude that the Cedi king was very powerful, for he is described as making a gift of ten Rājās or kings as slaves to a priest who officiated at one of his sacrifices.

The Cedis are not expressly mentioned in the later Vedic literature, but it would be wrong to suppose that they had become extinct, for they appear in the *Mahābhārata* as one of the leading powers of Northern India. It is probable that they were not so prominent in their sacrificial rites, or their political power, in the Brāhmaṇa age as they had been in the earlier era of the Rgvedic hymns; but there were ups and downs in the history of every great Kṣatriya power in India.

Another well-known Cedi monarch of ancient times, Vasu, who acquired the designation of Uparicara, is glorified in the *Mahābhārata*, and traditions about him and his successors are also recorded in the Jātakas. This Cedi king appears to have been characterised by great religious merit. Himself a Paurava, he is recorded to have been, through his daughter Satyavatī, the progenitor of the Kauravas and

the Pāṇḍavas.

In the Adiparvan of the Mahābhārata,¹ we read that Vasu, the Paurava, conquered the beautiful and excellent kingdom of the Cedis on the advice of the god Indra, whose friendship he had acquired by his austerities, and who, pleased with his asceticism, presented him with a great crystal car.² Because of his riding on it and moving through the upper regions like a celestial being, he came to be known as Uparicara.³ King Uparicara Vasu had one son and one daughter by an apsarā named Ādrikā. The daughter,

¹ M. N. Dutt, Mahābhārata, p. 83.

² *Ibid.*, p. 84.

who was named Satyavati, became the mother of Krsnadvaipāyana and others, and was the queen of King Santanu. The son afterwards became a virtuous and powerful monarch named Matsya. We further read that Uparicara Vasu Caidya had a few other sons, namely, Brhadratha, Pratyagraha, Kuśamba and others, who founded kingdoms and cities which were named after them.1 Vāyupurāna (Chap. 99) also confirms the story of the conquest of the Cedi country by Vasu the Paurava. We read there that Yavāti had a chariot which used to move according to his desire. chariot came into the hands of Vasu, king of the Cedis. According to another account, Vasu, a descendant of Kuru, conquered the Yādava kingdom of Cedi, and established himself there, whence he was known as Caidya-Uparicara. His capital was Suktimatī on the river of the same name. He extended his conquests eastwards as far as Magadha and apparently also north-west over Matsya. He divided his territories of Magadha, Cedi, Kauśāmbi, Karūsa and apparently Matsya among his five sons. His eldest son Brhadratha took Magadha with Girivraja as his capital, and founded the famous Bārhadratha dvnastv there.2

Another section of the *Mahābhārata* ³ also speaks of the greatness of the Cedi monarch, Uparicara Vasu, and describes an Aśvamedha sacrifice which he performed.

In the Cetiya Jātaka, we find a dynastic list of the ancestors of Upacara or Apacara, who was the ruler of Sotthivatinagara in the kingdom of Ceti. King Upacara had five sons one of whom went to the east, and founded Hatthipura; while the second son went to the south, and founded Assapura; the third to the west, and founded Sīhapura; the fourth to the north, and founded Uttarapañcāla; and the last son went to the north-west, and founded Daddarapura.

The next Cedi monarch who appears to have acquired considerable power in the Epic period is Sisupāla who is called Damaghoṣasuta (Mbh., I, 7029) or Damaghoṣātmaja (II, 1594; III, 516). He allied himself with the great Jarāsandha and on account of his heroism was appointed generalissimo of the Magadhan emperor. His conduct appears to have roused the displeasure of many of the Kṣatriya tribes of his time, but he was looked upon with such fear that he was considered as an incarnation of the great Daitya Hiranya-Kaśipu, and the Epic tells us that he bore a charmed

¹ M. N. Dutt, Mbh., p. 84; Mbh. Adiparvan, Chap. 63, pp. 69-71.

<sup>Pargiter, Ancient Indian Historical Tradition, p. 282.
Mbh., Sāntiparvan, Chaps. 136 and 137, pp. 1802-4.</sup>

⁴ Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. III, pp. 454-461. See also Pañcāla chapter.

⁵ Evidently identical with Suktimati.

⁶ Mbh., II, 14, 10-11.

⁷ Ādiparvan, 67, 5.

colours like a deer. The Cedi king along with Bhīma and others was placed in the front of the Pāndava army.² He and his brother Suketu were killed in the Kuruksetra war.3 Bhīma mentioned eighteen kings who by their great strength ruined their friends and relations, and among them was Sahaja of the Cedi dynasty.4 From the Asyamedhaparvan of the Mahābhārata, we learn that Ariuna fought and defeated Sarabha, the son of Sisupala, at the city of Sukti in the kingdom of Cedi.

The Visnupurāna (4-12) and the Agnipurāna (275) tell us that the descendants of Cedi, son of Kausika, were known as Caidvas. The Mārkandeya Purāna (Chaps. 129-31) refers to a Cedi princess, Susobhana by name, who was one of the many queens of King Maru. It is recorded in the Visnupurāna (4, 12) that Vidarbha, son of Ivāmagha, had three sons of whom Kausika was one. Cedi was a son of Kausika, and the descendants of this Cedi were known as Caidyarājās.6 In the Matsyapurāņa (Chap. 44), Cedi is written as Cidi. The Kūrmapurāna (Chap. 24) tells a similar story of the origin of the name of Cedi. King Vidarbha, it says, had a son named Cidi, and after him, his descendants came to be known as Caidyas. Dyutimān was the eldest of his sons, the others being Vapusmān, Brhatmedhā, Śrīdeva and Vītaratha. Pargiter observes 8 that Cedi and other kingdoms, e.g. Vatsa, did not come under the rule of the Pauravas; but we may note that the famous king Vasu Uparicara was a Paurava by birth. Pargiter suggests that Pratyagraha may have taken Cedi.9

In the *Mahābhāratu*, we find the Cedis allied in a group with such western tribes as the Pañcālas, Matsyas and Karūsas, and also with peoples who lived in the east, such as the Kāśīs and Kośalas. We read of the Cedi-Kārūsakāh bhūmipālāh, or rulers of the Cedis and Kārūsakas, who espoused the cause of the Pāndavas. 10 Elsewhere the Cedi-Pañcāla-Kaikeyas are grouped together. 11 Again, we are told that Dhrstaketu was the leader of the Cedi-Kāśī-Karūsa peoples 12; and we find the group Cedi-Kāśī-Karūsa fighting together. 18 Sometimes the Cedis are grouped together with the Kārūṣas and the

¹ Dronaparvan, Chap. 22, pp. 1012-3.

² Bhīsmaparvan, Chap. 19, p. 830. See also Chap. 59, p. 935.

⁸ Mbh., Karnaparvan, Chap. 6, p. 1169.

⁴ Ibid., Udyogaparvan, Chap. 74, p. 717. Cf. Ibid., Chap. 72, p. 714.

⁵ Chapters 83-4, pp. 2093-4.

⁷ Agniburāna, Chap. 275.

⁶ Vāyupurāṇa, Chap. 95. 8 Ancient Indian Historical Tradition, p. 203.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 118. 10 V, 22. 11 V, 144. 12 V, 196.

¹⁸ VI, 47; VI, 106; VI, 115; VI, 116.

Matsyas 1; or with the Kārūsas, Matsyas, and Pañcālas 2; or with the Kārūsas and Kośalas.3 These examples could be further multiplied; but we can gather from those already quoted that the Cedis are found combined with the Matsyas in the majority of cases, and it seems that the Matsyas were their immediate neighbours on the west, and the Kāśīs on the east.

The capital of the Cedi king, Dhrstaketu, is called Suktimati,4 and is described as named after Sukti or oyster.⁵ This city appears to have stood on the river Suktimatī which, we are told, flowed near the capital of the Cedi king, Vasu Uparicara, and which is also described in the geographical chapter of the Bhīsmaparvan (VI. 9)

as one of the rivers in Bhāratavarsa.

The Visnudharmottara Mahāpurāna (Chap. 9) mentions Cedi as a janapada or country, and so does the Padmapurāna (3rd chapter). Cedi (Ceti) is also mentioned in the Jaina and Buddhist literatures as one of the sixteen mahājanapadas.⁷ The Cetis, says Rhys Davids, were probably the same tribe as that called Cedi in older documents, and had two distinct settlements. One, probably the older, was in the mountains in what is now called Nepal. The other, probably a later colony, was near Kauśambi to the east, and has been confused with the land of the Vamsa (Vatsa).8 S. Krishnaswami Aiyangar in his Ancient India agrees with Rhys Davids that one branch of the Cedis had their local habitat in Bundelkhand, the other being located somewhere in Nepal. D. R. Bhandarkar says that Ceta or Cetiya corresponds roughly to the modern Bundelkhand ¹⁰; while Rapson says that in the post-Vedic period the Cedis occupied the northern portion of the Central Provinces. 11 In the Cambridge History of India (p. 84), we read that the Cedis dwelt in Bundelkhand to the north of the Vindhyas; while Pargiter says 12 that Cedi lay along the south of the Jumna. The following is a summary given by N. L. Dey in his Geographical Dictionary (p. 14): According to Tod, Chanderi, a town in Malwa, was the capital of Sisupala who was killed by Kṛṣṇa. According to Dr. Führer, Dahala Mandala was the ancient Cedi. Some are of opinion that Cedi comprised the southern portion of Bundelkhand and northern portion of Jabbalpur. Kālañjara was the capital of Cedi under the Gupta kings. Cedi was also called Tripuri.

¹ VI, 54; VIII, 30. ² VI, 59. 8 VII, 21. ⁵ Mbh., XIV, 83. 4 Mbh., III, 22. ⁶ Mbh., I, 63.

⁷ Anguttara Nikāya, Vol. IV, pp. 252, 256 and 260; Cf. Bhagavatī Sūtra. ⁸ Buddhist India, p. 26. ⁹ p. 8.

¹⁰ Carmichael Lectures, 1918, p. 52. 11 Ancient India, p. 162. 12 Ancient Indian Historical Tradition, p. 272.

THE CEDIS 51

Cunningham remarks that in the inscriptions of the Kalachuri or Haihaya dynasty of Cedi, the Rājās assumed the titles of 'Lords of Kālañjarapura and of Tri-Kalinga'. Kālañjar is the well-known hill-fort in Bundelkhand; and Tri-Kalinga or the 'three Kalingas' must be the three kingdoms of Dhanaka or Amarāvatī on the Kistnā,

Andhra or Warangal, and Kalinga or Rājāmahendri.1

It is stated in the *Vessantara Jātakā* that Cetaraṭṭha (i.e. Cedirāṣṭra, kingdom of the Cedis) was 30 yojanas distant from Jetuttaranagara, the birthplace of King Vessantara. It was inhabited by 60,000 Khattiyas (Kṣatriyas) who are also described as Cetiyarājās. Vessantara with his wife and children started from Jetuttara at breakfast-time and reached the capital of Cetaraṭṭha in the evening. The Cedis' hospitality to strangers is illustrated by this story; for we read that the Cedis offered food and hospitality to Vessantara who had been banished from the kingdom of his father Sivi; and when the prince proceeded to Vaṅkapabbata, the '60,000 Khattiyas' followed him to a certain distance as a kind of bodyguard.²

In the \$\overline{A}\diparvan\$ of the \$Mah\overline{a}\bhat{b}\overline{a}\arapsata\$, we read that the kingdom of Cedi was full of riches, gems and precious stones, and contained much mineral wealth. The cities in the kingdom were full of honest, virtuous, and contented people. Here sons were mindful of their parents' welfare; here lean kine were never yoked to the plough or to the cart engaged in carrying merchandise,—they were all well-fed and fat. In Cedi, the four castes were engaged in doing their respec-

tive duties.3

In the *Vedabbha* 'Jātaka, we read that in a village in Benares there was a brahmin who was acquainted with a charm called Vedabbha. He went to the Cetiya country with the Bodhisattva, who was his pupil. Five hundred robbers caught them in a forest on the way, took the brahmin prisoner, and told the Bodhisattva to fetch a ransom for him. By repeating his charm, the brahmin caused money to shower from the sky; whereupon the robbers took the money and released him. But the first band of robbers was attacked by another band of the same number; and eventually the brahmin and all the robbers were destroyed, so that when the Bodhisattva returned with the ransom money, he found none there. This account shows that the way from Benares to Cedi was frequented by robbers and was unsafe for travellers.

¹ Ancient Geography, p. 518.

² Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. VI, pp. 514-5.

<sup>M. N. Dutt, Mahābhārata, Ādiparvan, p. 84.
Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. I, pp. 253 foll.</sup>

In the Anguttara Nikāya,¹ we read that on several occasions Mahācunda, an eminent disciple of the Buddha, dwelt in the town of Sahajāti among the Cedis. The same Nikāya² further tells us that Anuruddha (first cousin and disciple of the Buddha) dwelt among the Cedis in the Deer-Park of Pācīnavamsa. In the Dīgha Nikāya,³ we read that the Buddha went to the Cedis and other tribes while out preaching; while the Saṃyutta Nikāya⁴ informs us that many theras were dwelling among the Cedis in the Sahañcanika.

The Cedis of the Vedic period, like other tribes, e.g. the Purus, were a group of families, says Dr. V. A. Smith, and in each family the father was master. The whole tribe was governed by a Rājā whose power was checked to an undefined extent by a tribal council. The details recorded suggest that the life of the people was not unlike that of many tribes of Afghanistan in modern times, before the

introduction of fire-arms.5

The later kings of Cedi used an era according to which the year I was equivalent to A.D. 248-9. This era, also called the Traikūṭaka, originated in Western India, where its use can be traced back to the fifth century. The reason for its adoption by the kings of Cedi is not apparent. Rapson remarks that each of certain eras, e.g. the Traikūṭaka, Cedi, or Kalacuri era of 249 A.D., the Gupta era of 319 A.D., and the era of King Harṣavardhana of 606 A.D., marks the establishment of a great power in some region of India, and originally denoted the regnal years of its founder.

Kokalladeva I of the Cedi dynasty helped Bhojadeva II (c. 907–910 A.D.) to ascend the throne of Kanouj; and it is evident from the stone inscription of the kings of the Cedi dynasty discovered at Vishari that Kokalladeva I erected two wonderful monuments.⁸ During the reign of Mahīpāladeva of Bengal (c. 978–1030), Gāṅgeyadeva of the Cedi dynasty attacked Gauḍa and occupied Mithilā.⁹ Towards the close of the eleventh century, Kānyakubja (Kanouj) came under the sway of Karṇadeva (c. 1040–1070), son of

Gāngeyadeva.10

Numismatists suppose that Gāṅgeyadeva issued a new coinage in Uttarāpatha.¹¹ Only coins of this monarch of the Cedi dynasty of

¹ Vol. III (P.T.S.), pp. 355-6; Vol. V, pp. 41 ff.; 157-161.

<sup>P.T.S., Vol. IV, pp. 228 ff.
Vol. II, pp. 200, 201, 203, Janavasabha Suttanta.</sup>

⁴ •Vol. V, pp. 436-7.

⁵ Ancient and Hindu India, p. 22.

⁶ V. A. Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 409.

⁷ Ancient India, p. 22.

⁸ R. D. Banerjee, Vāngālār Itihāsa, p. 202.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 224.

¹⁰ Prācīna Mudrā, p. 215.

¹¹ Ibid., p. 211.

Dāhala have been discovered, and no coins of the kings prior or posterior to him in the dynasty are known to us.¹ Gold, silver and copper coins of Gāṅgeyadeva have been discovered. On one side is the name of the king in two lines, and on the other a figure of a four-

armed goddess.2

Coins of one king of the Cedi or Kalacuri dynasty of Kalyāṇapura have also been discovered. On one side of the coins is engraved the figure of the boar-incarnation, and on the other is written 'Murāri' in Nāgarī characters. Murāri, as R. D. Banerjee says, is perhaps another name of Someśvaradeva, the second king of the abovementioned Cedi dynasty.³

53

¹ Prācīna Mudrā, p. 212.

² Ibid., p. 212.

³ Ibid., p. 184.

CHAPTER VII

. THE MADRAS

The Madras 1 were an ancient Ksatriya tribe of Vedic times. They are not mentioned in the early Vedic Samhitas, but the Vamsa Brāhmana of the Sāmaveda mentions an ancient Vedic teacher, Madragāra Saungāyani, from whom Aupamanyava, the Kāmbojan, received the Vedic lore (cf. chapter on Kambojas). From the name Madragāra, scholars infer that Saungāyani belonged to the Madra tribe.² and the fact that Vedic learning had spread so much among the Madras as to give one of them a prominent place in a list of ancient teachers would seem to show that the Madras belonged to the Vedic Aryandom before the age of the *Brāhmanas*. Their Vedic learning in Brāhmana times is testified to by the Satabatha Brāhmana where we find that sages of N. India, most probably of the Kuru-Pañcala district, repaired to the Madra country to receive their education in Vedic learning. In the Brhadāranyaka Upanisad (III, 7, 1), Uddālaka Āruni tells Yājñavalkya: 'We dwelt among the Madras in the houses of Patañcala Kāpya, studying the sacrifice'. And again, Bhujyu Lāhāyani says, 'We wandered about as students, and came to the house of Patancala Kapya' (Brh. Up., III, 3, 1).

In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (VIII, 14, 3), we find the mention of a section of the Madra people, the Uttara or N. Madras who lived beyond the Himālayas (pareṇa Himavantam) in the N. regions close to the Uttara-Kurus. Uttara-Madra is supposed by scholars to

have been located in Kashmir.8

In the *Rāmāyaṇa*, we read that Sugrīva sent monkeys to the Madrakas and other tribes in quest of Sītā.⁴ In the *Viṣṇupurāṇa* (2, 3, 17), mention is made of Madra together with Ārāma, Pārasīka, etc. and in the *Matsyapurāṇa* (114, 41) together with Gāndhāra, Yavana, etc. In the same *Purāṇa* (208, 5), King Aśvapati of Śākala in the kingdom of the Madras is referred to. Madra (Pāli *Madda*) is not mentioned in the list of sixteen *Mahājanapadas* in Buddhist literature. It has been supposed by some that Madra is to be identified with Vāhlika ⁵ (see Chapter on Vāhlikas). The Madras

 $^{^{1}}$ Mr. H. C. Ray has contributed a paper to the J.A.S.B. (New Series, Vol. XVIII, 1922, No. 4) on the same subject.

² Vedic Index, II, p. 123. ³ Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, p. 102.

Rāmāyaṇa (Griffith's translation), Additional Notes, p. 43.
 N. I., Dey, Geographical Dictionary, p. 49.

held the central portions of the Punjab; ¹ they appear in the Epic period to have occupied the district of Sialkot, between the rivers Chenab and Ravi, ² or, according to some, between the Jhelum and the Ravi. ³ The Madra tribe or kingdom is mentioned in the Bhīṣmaparvan of the Mahābhārata (Chap. IX), in Varāhamihira's Brhatsamhitā, ⁴ and in Pāṇini's grammar (II, 3, 73; IV, 4, 67). It is evident from the Allahabad Pillar Inscription that the Madra territory was contiguous with that of the Yaudheyas. ⁵

The capital of the Madras was Sāgala (Pāli) or Śākala 6 (Sanskrit), which has been identified by General Cunningham with Sanglawala-Tiba, to the west of the Ravi (Ancient Geography of India, p. 180). According to Cunningham, Śākala is still known as Madradeśa or the district of the Madras. It lay about 32 N. by 74 E.⁷

It appears from *Hwui-lih* that the pilgrim Hsüan Tsang visited Śākala. The old town of Śākala (*She-ki-lo*), according to the great pilgrim, was about 20 li in circuit. Although its walls had been thrown down, the foundation was still firm and strong, and in the midst of it a town of 6 or 7 li in circuit had been built. There was in Śākala a Saṅghārāma (monastery) with about 100 priests of the Hīnayāna school, and N.W. of the Saṅghārāma was a stūpa about 200 feet high, built by Aśoka; while a stone stūpa of about the same height, also built by Aśoka, stood about 10 li to the N.E. of the new capital.8

The Milinda Pañho gives a splendid description of the Madra capital: 'There is a great centre of trade called Sāgala, the famous city of yore in the country of the Yonakas. Sāgala is situated in a delightful country, well-watered and hilly, abounding in parks and gardens, groves, lakes and tanks, a paradise of rivers and mountains and woods. Wise architects have laid it out. Brave is its defence, with many strong towers and ramparts, with superb gates and entrance archways, and with the royal citadel in its midst, white-walled and deeply moated. Well laid out are its streets, squares, cross-roads and market places. Its shops are filled with various costly merchandise. It is richly adorned with hundreds of alms-halls of various kinds and splendid with hundreds of thousands of magnificent

¹ V. A. Smith, Early History of India (4th Ed.), p. 302.

 ² Cambridge History of India, Ancient India, pp. 549-550.
 ³ Cunningham, Ancient Geography, p. 185; and see also ibid., pp. 5-6.

⁴ Kern, Brhatsamhitā, p. 92.

⁵ R. C. Majumdar, Corporate Life in Ancient India, p. 272.

⁶ Mbh., II, 1196; VIII, 2033.

⁷ Cunningham, Ancient Geography of India, p. 185; Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 39.

⁸ Beal, Records of the Western World, Vol. I, pp. 166 et seq.

mansions...' The passage goes on to describe the traffic of elephants, horses, carriages and pedestrians; the welcome given to teachers of all creeds, and the rich produce, precious metals, and delicacies which are to be found in the city. It is described as rivalling Uttara-Kuru in wealth and Alakamandā, the city of the Gods, in glory (*Milinda Pañho*, pp. 1 and 2, and Trsl. S.B.E., Vol. 35, pt. I, pp. 1–3).

According to the evidence of the Sanskrit Epics and Pāli Jātakas, the Madras were Kṣatriyas, and they entered into matrimonial alliance with the Kṣatriya dynasties of the Gangetic kingdoms (see the account of the marriage of Pāndu, the Kuru king, and a Madra princess; cf. also Mbh., Adiparvan, Chap. 95 (marriage of

Parīksit and Mādravatī).

The Jātakas bear ample testimony to the fact that the Madra princesses were sought in marriage by the great Kṣatriya houses of N. India. Thus we read in the Kusa-Jātaka that a certain king of Madra had seven daughters of great beauty. The eldest of them, Pabhāvatī, was given in marriage to Kusa (or Kuśa), son of King Okkāka, and the kingdoms of Madra and Kusāvatī were thus united by matrimonial alliance.¹

The same story of the union of Prince Kuśa of the great Iksyāku family with a Madra princess is told in the Mahāvastu-Avadāna, with some variations. At Benares, we are told, there was a king named Kuśa belonging to the Iksvāku family. His ministers, in quest of a beautiful bride for the king, reached the city of Kānyakubja in the kingdom of Śūrasena where the Madra king Mahendra ruled. Seeing his beautiful daughter, they approached the king who readily consented to give her in marriage to King Kuśa of Benares. But King Kuśa's appearance was repulsive, and his wife Sudarśanā, discovering the defects in him, left Benares and returned to Kānyakubja. When he discovered his wife's absence. Kuśa immediately set out in pursuit. Arriving at his father-in-law's palace, he tried by various means to regain his wife's favour. but in Finally he disguised himself as a cook and prepared some delicious soup through which he won the king's favour. In the meantime, seven Ksatriya kings from neighbouring countries came to win Sudarśanā, but they were refused. Then Kuśa, practically single-handed, drove all the seven kings away, and having saved his father-in-law's kingdom, returned with his wife to his own country. The Madra king, Mahendra, on the advice of his son-inlaw, gave his remaining seven daughters in marriage to the seven

¹ Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. V, pp. 284 foll.

kings who had come to attack him, and thereby strengthened his

position.1

From the Kālinga-Bodhi Jātaka we observe that even a prince of the royal house of Kālinga in the far east sought the hand of a princess of the Madra country. A daughter was born to the king of Madra in the city of Sāgala. It was foretold that the girl should live as an ascetic but that her son would be universal monarch. The kings of India heard of this prediction and surrounded the city with the object of seeking the princess's hand. The king of Madra could not give his daughter in marriage to any one of them without incurring the wrath of the others. So he fled to a forest with his wife and daughter. The prince of Kalinga, who was also in the forest, happened to meet the Madra princess, and fell in love with her. Learning that she was a Ksatriya like himself, he obtained her parents' consent to their marriage, and a matrimonial alliance was thus established between the royal houses of Madra and Kalinga.² In the Chaddanta Jātaka, we find that the royal houses of Benares and Madra were allied with each other through matrimony 3 (see also *lātaka*, Vol. VI, p. 1). The great Ceylonese chronicle (*Mahāvamsa*, 8, 7) records an alliance between a Madra princess and a prince of Eastern India.

The Madras, according to the Arthaśāstra of Kautilya (p. 455), were a corporation of warriors, and enjoyed the status of rājās (rājaśabdopajīvinaḥ). The Mahābhārata 4 tells us that it was a family custom of the Madras to receive a fee from the bridegroom when they gave their daughters in marriage. The marriage proposal was first made by the bridegroom's party to the bride's party. When Pāṇḍu, the Kuru prince, won the hand of Kuntī, the daughter of a Bhoja king, in a Svayamvara (the ceremony of a woman's choosing her husband), Bhīṣma wished him to take a second wife as well. Bhīṣma accordingly set out with a retinue and coming to the city of the Madra king named Śalya of the Vāhlika dynasty, asked the king to give his sister in marriage to Pāṇḍu. Śalya told him of the custom of receiving a fee; Bhīṣma consented and having given the Madra king much wealth as fee for the bride, he brought her to Hastināpura, where the marriage ceremony was performed.⁵

In the Great Epic, we have further details of Salya, king of the Madras. On the eve of the Kurukṣetra war, Yudhiṣṭhira sent messengers asking Salya for his assistance. The king set out with his brave sons and a huge army. When on the march, this army

¹ Mahāvastu, II, p. 440 et seq.

² Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. IV, pp. 228 foll.

⁴ Adiparvan, Chap. 113.

³ Ibid., Vol. V, pp. 37 foll.

⁵ Ibid., see also Chap. 95.

occupied the space of half a yojana. Hearing of the Madra king's might, Duryodhana decided to seek his alliance, and received him on the way, giving him a great ovation. Salya was highly pleased with his reception, and offered Duryodhana a boon. Thereupon Duryodhana solicited his help in the ensuing Kurukṣetra war; and King Salya consented, subsequently asking Yudhiṣṭhira to release him (on certain conditions) from his previous promise. After severe fighting, and many vicissitudes, the Madra soldiers were killed by Arjuna.¹

The legend of Sāvitrī and Satyavān, so popular all over India, is connected with the Madra country, for Sāvitrī was the daughter of Aśvapati, king of Madra. This story is too well-known to require repetition here.²

As far as authentic history is concerned, we learn that the Madra dominions, including the capital, Śākala, came under the sway of Alexander the Great (326 B.C.) who placed them under the Satrap of the adjacent territory between the Jhelum and the Chenab.³

In the course of the centuries following the death of the Buddha, the Buddhist religion spread from the N.E. districts of India to the extreme West,—no doubt largely owing to the powerful proselytising zeal of the great Maurya Emperor Aśoka. About 78 A.D., we find Menander (Milinda), a powerful Greek king, ruling at Śākala, and the Pāli 'Milinda Pañho' gives a full account of this king's conversion to Buddhism.⁴ During Menander's reign, the people knew of no oppression, since all their enemies had been conquered. Even before Menander's time, Śākala seems to have come under Buddhist influence (see, e.g. Mrs. Rhys Davids' Psalms of the Sisters, p. 48; Psalms of the Brethren, p. 359).

In the fourth century A.D., the Madras are recorded as having

paid taxes to Samudragupta.⁵

At a later date, in the early part of the sixth century A.D., Sākala became the capital of the Hūṇa conqueror, Mihirakula.⁶ From the records of the travels of Hsüan Tsang, the Chinese pilgrim, we read that some centuries before his time there was in the town of

² Mbh., Vanaparvan, Chaps. 291-8, pp. 509-523, Mahārājā of Burdwan's Edition.

3 Cambridge History of India, Ancient India, Vol. I, pp. 549-550.

¹ Mbh., Udyogaparvan, Chaps. 8 and 19; Dronaparvan, Chap. 103; Bhīşmaparvan, Chaps. 51; 105-6; Karnaparvan, Chaps. 5-6.

⁴ Questions of King Milinda (S.B.E.), Pt. I, p. 6; Rapson, Ancient India, pp. 128-131.

⁵ Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, p. 14; Gupta Inscriptions, Text and Translations.

⁶ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, pp. 549-550.

Śākala a king named *Mo-hi-lo-kiu-lo* (Mahirakula), who established his authority in that town, and subdued all the neighbouring provinces. This king was of a cruel nature, and, becoming enraged by the conduct of certain Buddhist priests, ordered his men to destroy all the priests 'through the five Indies', to overthrow the law of the Buddha and to leave nothing remaining.

Bālāditya, king of Magadha, heard of Mahirakula's cruel persecutions, and, after strongly guarding the frontiers of his kingdom. refused to pay tribute to him. Hearing that Mahirakula was marching against him, Bālāditya fled, followed by his soldiers, to the islands of the sea. Mahirakula forthwith left his army in the charge of his younger brother, and himself put out to sea to attack Bālāditva, but was captured by the latter's soldiers. Bālāditva, however, took pity on the captured sovereign and released him. Finding that his kingdom had meanwhile been usurped by his brother, Mahirakula went to Kashmir, where he was received with honour by the king, and given some territory over which to rule. After some years he betrayed his trust, killed the king, and placed himself on the throne. He then plotted against the kingdom of Gandhara. killed all the members of the royal family, and the chief minister, destroyed all Buddhist topes and temples, and appropriated the wealth of the country. However, retribution soon followed. for he was dead before the year was out.1

It appears that the kingdom of Madra was still intact in the ninth century A.D., when we find the Madras as the allies of Dharmapāla, the monarch of Bengal, who with the help of the Madras and other northern powers dethroned Indrarāja, king of Pañcāla.²

² V. A. Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 413.

¹ Beal, Records of the Western World, Vol. I, pp. 165-172; Watters, On Yuan Chwang, I, p. 289.

CHAPTER VIII

THE MÄLAVAS

The Mālava tribe played an important rôle in the history of Ancient India. First settled in the Punjab, they gradually spread themselves over considerable portions of N. India and established their settlements in Rajputana, Central India, in different localities of the modern United Provinces, in the country known in ancient days as Lāṭa-deśa (comprising Broach, Cutch, Vadnagar and Ahmedabad), and finally in modern Malwa. They successfully maintained their tribal organisation from the time of Pāṇini till at least as late as the time of Samudragupta (fourth century A.D.).

The earliest definite mention of the Mālavas is made in the writings of Alexander's historians who refer to them as Malloi, Malli or Mallai, associated with the Oxydrakai, Sudracae, Hydrakai or Sydracae. These two tribes have long been identified with the Mālavas and Kṣudrakas of Sanskrit literature. Pāṇini does not actually mention them by name, but his sūtra V, 3, 117, speaks of certain tribes as 'āyudhajīvī samghas', or tribes living by the profession of arms, and the Kāsika says that amongst these Samghas were the Mālavas and Kṣudrakas. The Mālava tribe is actually mentioned in the Mahābhāṣya of Patañjali (IV, 1, 68).²

In the time of Alexander (and probably also earlier), the Mālavas were settled in the Punjab, but it is difficult to locate exactly the territory they occupied. Smith thinks that they (the Malloi) occupied the country below the confluence of the Hydaspes (Jhelum) and Akesines (Chenab), that is, the country comprising the Jhang district and a portion of the Montgomery district. According to McCrindle, they occupied a greater extent of territory, comprising the modern doab of the Akesines and Hydraotes (= Chenab and Rāvī)

3 J.R.A.S., 1903, p. 631.

¹ Ind. Ant., Vol. I, p. 23.

² According to the Jain *Bhagavatī Sūtra*, Mālava is included in the list of the sixteen *Mahājanapadas* along with Malaya. The Mālava country of the *Bhagavatī* is probably identical with Avanti of the *Anguttara Nikāya* (P.H.A.I., p. 82, 4th Edn.). According to Weber, Āpiśali (according to Jayaswal, Kātyāyana) speaks of the formation of the compound—'*Kṣaudraka-Mālavāḥ*'. Smith points out that the *Mahābhārata* couples the tribes in question as forming part of the Kaurava host in the Kurukṣetra war. Curtius tells us that the Sudracae and the Malli had an army consisting of 90,000 foot-soldiers, 10,000 cavalry, and 900 war-chariots (*ibid.*, pp. 156-7).

and extending to the confluence of the Indus and Akesines—identical with the modern Multan district and portions of Montgomery.¹ Ray Chaudhuri locates them in the valley of the lower Hydraotes

(Rāvī) on both banks of the river.2

While sailing along the Hydaspes, Alexander heard that the Malloi and the Oxydrakai had combined together and prepared themselves 'to give him hostile reception'. But it is difficult to ascertain from the mass of contradictory information of the Greek authorities whether the two tribes were able to give the conqueror a united opposition. While Curtius tells us that their combined army was led by a Ksudraka hero, Diodorous says that the Syrakusoi (Ksudrakas) and Malloi could not agree as to the choice of a leader, and consequently did not take the field together. According to Arrian as well, the Malloi had agreed to combine with the Oxydrakai against Alexander, but the conqueror had advanced so suddenly that their design was thwarted, and the two tribes could hardly have had the opportunity to unite against the common enemy.3 The Malloi were certainly taken by surprise by Alexander's army, and suffered a defeat which was, however, not final. More than once the brave tribe offered determined opposition from their fortified cities which fell one by one to the sword of Alexander and his general Perdikas. The men deserted their cities, and preferred to make the desert and jungle their home rather than submit to the conquering hordes. Alexander then sent two of his generals, Peithon and Demetrius, against the largest city of the Malloi. But the Malloi had already abandoned that city, and crossed the Hydraotes, where they stood to offer further opposition. Eventually, however, when they saw that they were in danger of being surrounded by the Greek cavalry, they repaired to their capital city nearby, and made a last effort to resist the foreign invader. But they could not achieve any success. Their city-walls were razed to the ground and the citadel captured; but in the course of the heavy fighting Alexander himself was seriously wounded. He took revenge on the enemy by ordering all the inhabitants of the city, including women and children, to be put to the sword. This city has wrongly been assigned by Diodorous and Curtius to the Oxydrakai; 4 but both Arrian and Plutarch definitely state that the city belonged to the Malloi and not to the Oxydrakai. Even after this defeat and massacre, the Malloi do not seem to have been completely annihilated:

¹ Invasion of India, App. Note, p. 357.

² P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., p. 202.

³ McCrindle, *Invasion of India*, p. 236, f.n. 1; p. 150. 4 *Ibid.*, App. Note Q., p. 351.

for Arrian tells us that the leading men from the Malloi and Oxydrakai came to Alexander to discuss the terms of a treaty which was eventually concluded.

Indeed, the Malavas seem to have occupied their territory in the Punjab for some time afterwards. We have already referred to the reference to the tribe in the Mahābhāṣya; and it is not improbable that the Mahābhārata locates the tribe in the same place when it couples them with the Trigarttas, as well as with the Sivis and Ambasthas.² But before long they seem to have migrated southwards and settled somewhere in Rajputana, where the tribes seem to have held their ground at the time of Samudragupta. A large number of coins found at Nagar, about 45 miles north of Kota, have on them the legend 'Mālavānām Jayah' ('victory of the Mālavas') in characters ranging in General Cunningham's opinion from perhaps B.C. 250 to 250 A.D. 'These coins', he says, 'show that the Malavas existed as a recognised and important clan, long before the time when their tribal constitution which led to the establishment of their era, took place'. Some of these coins, which are very small, have on them a legend that has been read as Magaya, Magojaya, Majupa, Mayojapa, Mapaya and so forth. 'Some scholars have taken these legends as denoting so many names, but the probability is that these letters constitute not names so much as abbreviations. In fact it was suggested to me long ago by Prof. D. R. Bhandarkar that the three letters Ma ga ja which occur, e.g. on coins 82-4 of Smith's Catalogue of Coins in the Indian Museum, Vol. I, and which had been taken to be the name of a king, look like an abbreviation of the legend: 'Mālava-gaṇasya jayaḥ', which occurs for instance on coins Nos. 58-61 . . . What looks like the letter pa in Mapaya may be la; and Mapaya might thus stand for Mālaya, equal to Mālaya. Mr. Douglas 4 has pointed out that the tribal name is sometimes written Mālava instead of Mālava. Similarly Ma pa ja may be explained as equivalent to Mālajayah, equal to Mālava-jayah. Again, Ma go ya sa may be equivalent to 'Mālavaganasya yaśah'. That the Mālavas had migrated to the Jaipur region of Rajputana from the Punjab is supported by the fact that the legend on some of the Mālava coins found in Rajputana has to be read from right to left as in Kharosthi, which was the prevalent script in the Punjab and the north-west from very early times.

¹ Dronaparvan, Chap. 10, p. 17.

² Sabhāparvan, Chap. 32, p. 7.

⁸ C.A.S.R., Vol. VI, 1871-3, pp. 72ff.
4 R. O. Douglas in his paper 'On some Mālava Coins', J.P.A.S.B., Vol. XIX, N.S., pp. 42ff.

⁵Â. C. Banerjee, 'The Mālavas', A.B.O.R.I., Vol. XIII, Pts. III-IV, 1931-2, pp. 218ff.

The Mālava occupation of the Nāgar area near Jaipur in Raiputana is also upheld by the Nasik Cave Inscription of Usavadāta. the Saka, son-in-law of the Ksatrapa Nahapana. The power of Nahapāna and his allies seems to have been threatened by the Malayas (= Mālayas) who had already besieged the Uttamabhadras. allies of the Saka king. Nahapāna sent Usavadāta, and the Malayas fled at the very sound of his approach, and were taken prisoner by the Uttamabhadras. Usavadāta afterwards went to Puskara, six miles west of Aimere. The Scythic invasions and conquests could not. however, destroy the tribal organisation of the tribe, for in the Allahabad Pillar inscription of Samudragupta they are included in the list of tribal states of the western and south-western fringe of Ārvāvarta. Among them the most important were the Mālavas, Ārjunāvanas, Yaudheyas, and Ābhīras, all of whom were settled in Raiputana at this time. The Bijayagadh Inscription (I.R.A.S., 1897, p. 30) definitely locates the Yaudheyas at this time in the Bharatpur State of Rajputana. The Abhīras also occupied some region in Western Rajputana, the place called Abiria in the Periplus of the Erythrean Sea.

According to the Puranas, the Malavas are associated with the Saurāstras, Avantis, Ābhīras, Śūras, and Arbudas,² and are described as dwelling along the Pāriyātra mountains. Thus it seems that they occupied other territories besides the Punjab or Rajputana. After Samudragupta's time when, as we have seen, the tribe was settled in Rajputana, the Malavas seem to have migrated to the Mandasor region in the north-west part of Central India, where most of the records connected with the successors of Samudragupta have been found. This region is certainly to be identified with the ancient Mahājanapada of Avanti (mentioned in the Anguttara Nikāva), as well as Avanti of the Junagadh Rock inscription of Rudradāman, and Malaya (= Mālaya) of the Jain Bhagavatī Sūtra referred to above whose capital was Ujjayini. This tract of country along with the region round Bhilsa comprises what is now known as Malwa (Mālava). It is well-known that the years of the Vikrama Era in the Gupta epoch were known as Krta; and the Mālavas were associated with them (cf. Mandasor Inscr. of Naravarman, C.I.I., Vol. III); and wherever the Krta years are specified in the inscriptions of the Gupta period, the name of the Malavas almost invariably occurs. We find the princes of Mandasor using the Era

¹ Ep. Ind., Vol. VIII, p. 44.

² Bhag., XII, I, 36; Viṣṇu, Bk. II, Chap. III; Brahma, Chap. XIX, śloka 17. The Rāmāyaṇa (Kiṣk. Kāṇḍa, Canto XLII) locates the tribe in the east; but the Bengal recension does not know of them.

(commencing 58 B.C.) traditionally handed down by the 'Mālava-gaṇa'. And it is not only in the Mandasor region that inscriptions have been found associating the Mālavas with the Kṛta Era; they have also been found among other places at Kāṃsuvāṃ in the Kotah State and Nāgarī in Udaipur State.

In the period following that of Skandagupta and his successors (i.e. after about 550 A.D.), the Mālavas seem to have migrated further to the east so as to cover the region from Bhilsa (Eastern Malwa) to Prayag. In the Harsacarita of Bana, Kumaragupta and Madhavagupta, two sons of King Mahasenagupta (of the line of Krsnagupta), who were appointed by Prabhākaravardhana to wait upon his sons, Rājyavardhana, and Harşavardhana respectively, are referred to as 'Mālavarājaputrau'. It follows that Mahāsenagupta was a king of Mālava. He was most probably succeeded by a king named Devagupta, who is referred to in the Madhuvan and Banskhera inscriptions of Harsavardhana, and who must be identical with the 'wicked Malava King' who cut off Grahavarman Maukhan in battle, but was himself defeated by Rājyavardhana.1 It is difficult to identify the Mālava Kingdom of Mahāsenagupta and Devagupta, but it was most probably identical with Pūrva-Mālava which lay between Prayāga and Bhilsa. It could not be the Mo-la-po (= Mālava) of Hsüan Tsang, for Mo-la-po was then under the Maitrakas of Valabhi; nor could it be the Mālava country whose capital was Ujjayini, for Ujjayini was at that time ruled by a brahmin dynasty, and the Guptas were not brahmins. Moreover, according to Vātsyāyana, Ujjayinīdeśa was called Apara-Mālava or Western Mālava; where only Mālava, without any prefix, is referred to, it should be taken to mean Eastern (Pūrva) Mālava.2

Just about this time, the celebrated Chinese pilgrim Hsüan Tsang in the course of his Indian travels visited the kingdom of 'Mo-la-po'; its capital was on the south-east of the river Moha (= Mahi). Mo-la-po was a country where learning was much prized.³ This Mo-la-po must now be identified with Mālavaka or Mālavaka-āhāra, referred to in a number of Valabhi grants as included in the kingdom of the Maitrakas of Valabhi. The Mālavaka-āhāra lay between Bhṛgukaccha or Broach, Cutch, Valabhi, and Vadnagar (Smith), and corresponds roughly to the modern districts of Kaira and Ahmedabad, together with parts of the Baroda State and some adjoining territories.⁴ That the Mo-la-po of Hsüan Tsang cannot be

¹ P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., pp. 514 foll.

² Ujjayinidesabhavastu evāpara-Mālavya-Mālavya iti Pūrva-Mālava bhava,— N. Ray, The Maukharis of Kanoj, Cal. Review, 1928, Feb., p. 210 f.n.

³ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, p. 242.

⁴ Ibid., II, p. 341.

identified with Malava (i.e. Western Malava) whose capital was Ujjavini is also proved by the fact that the pilgrim describes the former as being included within the territory of Valabhi. diminutive suffix Ka also indicates that it was then known as Lesser Mālava to distinguish it from Mālava proper' (C.A.G.I., Mazumdar's Notes, p. 728). The Malavaka country is also referred to in the Gurvāvalī Sūtra of Dharmasāgaragani, where Śrī Devendrasundarī is represented as having gone from Mālavaka to Gurjaratrā or Guirat; 1 and it is also mentioned in the Tewar Stone Inscription of the region of Jayasimhadeva of the Cedi year 928.2 The Mālavas and their country,—evidently meaning the region around Ujjayini and Bhilsa, i.e. modern Malwa, are mentioned in a number of later epigraphic records, e.g. in the Sagartal inscription of the Gurjara Pratihāras, the Paithāna Plates of Rāstrakūta Govinda III, and a host of others.

We have seen that the Malavas migrated eastwards as far as Prayāga, probably in the second half of the sixth century A.D. During the rule of the Pālas of Bengal and Bihar they seem to have migrated still further east: for in the copper-plates of the Pāla kings (excepting Dharmapāla), reference is made not only to the Kulikas. the Khasas and Hünas, but also to the Mālavas who seem to have migrated to Bengal as mercenary troops.

The name of the tribe survives to this day not only in the modern province of Malwa (which is a transformation of the word Mālava), but also in those of two Brāhmana castes called 'Mālavis' or 'Mālavikas'. They are the Brāhmanas of Mālava proper and the adjoining country, but are not only found in their special habitat, but also in Gujrat on the one hand, and Central and United Provinces on the other.3

² Ep. Ind., Vol. II, pp. 18-9.

¹ Weber, Die Sk. Pr. Handschriften der Berliner Bibliothek, II, 200.

⁸ See Ann. B.O.R.I., Vol. XIII, parts III-IV, 1931-2, p. 229.—'In Ep. Ind., V. 220, the Dandanāyaka Anantapāla, a feudatory of Vikramāditya VI, is said to have subdued the Sapta Mālava countries up to the Himālaya mountains. proves that there were as many as seven countries called Malava. These were probably (1) Mo-la-po (Mālavaka-āhāra of Valabhi grants) on the Mahi, governed by the Maitrakas, (2) Avanti ruled by a Brāhmana family in the time of Hsüan Tsang, (3) Pūrva Mālava (round Bhilsa), (4) District round Prayāga, (5) I'atehpur District, in U.P., (6) Cis-Sutlej districts of the Punjab, (7) Some Himalayan territory' (P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., p. 492, f.n. 4).

CHAPTER IX

THE ŚĀLVAS

The Śālvas were an important people of Ancient India, and are referred to in Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī, in the Epics, and in the Purāṇas. But they do not seem to have been able to maintain their integrity until the beginning of the historical period, for they are scarcely referred to in inscriptions or in later Sanskrit or Pāli literature.

Perhaps the earliest mention of the Śālvas as a tribe is found in the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa (1, 2, 9), where they appear in connection with the Matsyas. The Matsyas were inhabitants of the region identical with the kingdom of King Virāṭa of the Mahābhārata, and the Matsya capital has been identified with Virāṭ in the Jaipur State; and the Śālvas probably occupied the territory now occupied by the native state of Alwar.¹ According to the Mahābhārata,² the Śālva country was situated near Kurukṣetra and was the kingdom of the father of Satyavān, husband of Sāvitrī.³ The capital of the Śālvas seems to have been Śālvapura,⁴ which is also called Saubhaganagara. King Śālva's kingdom or territory was also known as Mārttikāvata or Mṛttikāvatī.⁵ Śālva is said to have attacked Dvārāvatī, but to have been killed by Kṛṣṇa.⁶

In the great Kuruksetra war the Śālvas along with the Matsyas, Kekayas, Ambaṣṭhas, Trigarttas, and others, lent their support to the army of Duryodhana against the Pāṇḍavas, and, along with the Ambaṣṭhas and Trigarttas, formed a unit of the army led by Bhīṣma. In the *Udyogaparvan* (54, 18) they are associated with the Pañcālas, Kekayas, and Śūrasenas; and (56, 18) with the Mālavas. In the *Bhīṣmaparvan*, the Śālvas, Matsyas, Ambaṣṭhas, Trigarttas, Kekayas, Sauvīras, and six other tribal states are said to have arrayed themselves by the side of Bhīṣma. The mighty Śālva king is said to have been laid low on the battle-field by Bhīmasena

¹ Cunningham, An. R.A.S.I., XX, p. 120; Matsyapurāņa, Chap. 113.

² Virāṭaparvan, Chap. I. ³ Vanaparvan, Chap. 282.

⁴ Mbh., Vanaparvan, Chap. 14.

⁵ Pargiter, A.I.H.T., p. 279. 'Mārttikāvata must be distinguished from Mṛttikāvatī. Mārttikāvata existed before, e.g. according to the story of Rāma Jāmadagnya' (Mbh., III, 116, 11076; VII, 70, 2436)—Ibid., f.n. 7.

⁶ Vanaparvan, Chap. 14.

⁷ Bhīsmaparvan, Chap. 20, 10, 12, 15.

⁸ Chap. 18, 13-4.

(Karṇaparvan, Chap. 5, 42).1 The Śālvas are several times referred to in the Mahābhārata 2 as Dānavas and Daitvas, i.e. demons, probably because of their fabled enmity to Visnu who is termed Salvāri', foe of Sālva.

The Vāyu and Matsyapurānas locate the Śālvas amongst the central peoples (i.e. Madhyadeśa); but the Viṣṇupurāṇa 3 places them in the extreme west, along with the Sauvīras, Saindhavas, Hūnas, Šākalas, Madras, etc.; and the Brahmapurāna (Chap. 19, 16-18) also locates them in the Aparanta or western country. In the Bengali recension of the Rāmāyana (Kisk. Kānda, XLIII, 23) also they are classed among the western nations.

Commenting on Śālvāvayava in the śloka 'Śālvāvayava pratyagrathakalakūtāśmakādiñ' (4, 1,173), the Kāśika on Pānini's Astādhyāyī names Udumbara, Tilakhala, Madrakāra, Yugandhara, Bhulinga, and Saradatta as the six avayavas or parts of the Salvajanapada. Bhulinga here is probably the same as 'Bolingai' of Ptolemy.4 In the śloka 'na prācya Bhargādi Yaudhevādibhyah' (4, 1, 178), the Kāśika includes the Karūsas, Kaśmīras, and Śālvas. Kāśika on another sūtra (4, 2, 76) refers to a city of the Śālvas named Vaidhumāgni, built by Vidhumāgni; and elsewhere the Kāśika includes the Salvas among the Kacchadi-gana, along with the Kaśmīras (4, 2, 133; 4, 1, 169).

¹ According to Mbh., XII, 234, 8607 and XIII, 137, 6267, Dyutimant was a certain king of the Salvas who gave his kingdom to Rcika.

III, 14, 633-4; 17, 695, 710; 885-6.
 II, Chap. III, śloka 16-8.

⁴ McCrindle's Ptolemy, p. 163.

CHAPTER X

THE USINARAS

The Uśīnaras were an ancient, petty tribe dwelling to the north of the Kuru country.¹ The Gopatha Brāhmaṇa (II, 9) tells us that the Uśīnaras and Vasas (Vatsas) were regarded as northerners. In the Rgveda (X, 59, 10) the tribe is alluded to in a passage which refers to their queen Uśīnaraṇī. Pāṇini, the grammarian, also refers to the Uśīnara country.² The Aitareya Brāhmaṇa contains a geographical passage (VIII, 14) which assigns the Kurus and Pañcālas, together with the Vasas and Uśīnaras, to the Middle Country, the later Madhyadeśa. In the Kauśītakī Upaniṣad (IV, 1) too, the Uśīnaras are associated with the Kuru-Pañcālas and the Vasas.

Zimmer thinks that the Uśīnaras earlier lived farther to the north-west. This theory is based on the fact that the Anukramani of the Rgveda ascribes one hymn (X, 179) to Sivi Ausinara; and that the Sivis were known to Alexander the Great's followers as the Siboi, living between the Indus and Akesines (Chenab). authors of the Vedic Index 3 do not accept Zimmer's view, and observe: 'This is in no way conclusive, as the Sibis, at any rate in Epic times, occupied the land to the north of Kuruksetra, and there is no reason whatever to show that in the Vedic period, the Usinaras were farther west than the Middle Country'. Pargiter,4 however, holds that Usinara and his descendants occupied the Punjab. Uśinara established separate kingdoms on the eastern border of the Punjab, viz. those of the Yaudheyas, Ambasthas, etc., and his famous son Sivi Ausinara originated the Sivis in Sivapura and, extending his conquests westwards, founded, through his four sons, the kingdoms of the Vrsadarbhas, Madras, Kekayas and Suvīras, thus occupying the whole of the Punjab except the north-west corner. 5 According to tradition, King Usinara was descended from the Anavas.6 He had five wives, Mrga, Krmi, Nava, Darva and Drsadvati, who respectively had five sons, Mrga, Krmi, Nava, Suvrata and Sivi. The city of Mrga was Yaudheva; and the Harivamśa connects the Yaudheyas with Uśīnara.7

8 Vol. I, p. 103.

¹ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 84.

² Sūtras, II, 4, 20; IV, 2, 118. ⁴ Ancient Indian Historical Tradition, p. 109.

Ibid., p. 264.Pargiter, Mārkandeya Purāņa, p. 380.

⁶ Ibid., p. 88.

The story of Uśīnara's offering to sacrifice himself for a pigeon, and his subsequently being granted a boon by Indra, is one of the favourites of Indian mythology, and is too well-known to repeat here.¹ In the Śāntiparvan of the Mahābhārata,² we read that Nārada said to Sañjaya: 'Uśīnara Śivi was dead. He encircled the whole world like a skin'. Elsewhere in the same parvan³ it is stated that Uśīnara became the sole emperor of the world, a patent exaggeration.

In the Śrīmadbhāgavatam we read that a famous king of Uśīnara named Suvajña was killed in battle.

The Buddhist Jātakas refer more than once to King Uśīnara.⁵ For instance, in one Jātaka we read that there once reigned a king named Uśīnara. His people were wicked and followed unrighteousness. During his reign, the religion of the Buddha began to disappear. Sakka (Sakra) observed the miserable plight of the people, due to the decadence of the religion of the Buddha. He turned the god Mātali, his charioteer, into the shape of a huge black hound and entered the city with him. The people were terrified by the loud barking of the hound. Sakka said that it was hungry; but even when all the food in the city was given to the hound, it did not stop barking. The king said that it must be a goblin, not a hound. Sakka then explained that he had come with the hound to revive the religion of the Buddha, and thus to establish the people in the virtues of liberality.⁶

A mountain named Usīragiri or Usīraddhaja is referred to in the Divyāvadāna (p. 22) and elsewhere; and Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhuri points out that this may be identical with the Usīnaragiri mentioned in the Kathāsaritsāgara (Ed. Durgāprasād and Kāsīnāth, 3rd Edn., p. 5). Usīnaragiri is placed near Kanakhala, and Usīraddhaja is mentioned in the Vinaya Piṭaka as forming the northern boundary of the Middle Country; accordingly, it is possible that the two are identical and associated with the Usīnara country.

¹ Mbh., Vanaparvan, Chaps. 130, 131.

Chap. 29, 39.
 Chap. II, śloka 28, 7th Skandha, p. 393.
 Ibid., 40; and see 41–3.

⁵ See, e.g. Nimi Jātaka (Fausböll), VI, p. 99; and Mahānāradakassapa Jātaka, ibid., Vol. VI, p. 251.

⁶ Jātaka, (Fausböll), Vol. IV, pp. 181 foll.

⁷ Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 55.

⁸ Vinaya, I, p. 197 (Oldenberg).

CHAPTER XI

THE VÄHLIKAS

Vāhlīka, Vālhīka and Valhīka are variant names of a people who lived in the northern division of India from very early times. A king of the tribe, Bālhīka Prātīpya, is referred to in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (XII, 9, 3, 1–3 and 13), and is represented as having opposed the restoration of Duṣṭarītu, king of the Ṣṛñjayas (Vedic Index, II, pp. 470-1). Bālhīka (or Vāhlīka) Prātīpeya (or Prātīpīya), son (or descendant) of this Pratīpa, as Pargiter points out (A.I.H.T., p. 166, f.n. 2), is mentioned in the Mahābhārata (Ādiparvan, Chap. 95, verse 44; Udyogaparvan, Chap. 47, verse 6). In the Sabhāparvan (Chap. 27, verse 22), mention is made of Vālheka, which is evidently another name for Vālhīka.

According to the Vāyupurāna as well as the Kāvya Mīmāmsā of Rājasekhara, the Vālhīka country is placed in the northern In the Bengal recension of the Rāmāyana (see, e.g. Kiskindhyā Kānda, 44, verse 13) the Vālhīkas are associated with the people of the north, and sometimes (e.g. ibid., 43, verse 5) with those of the west. We may conclude, then, that the Valhika country should be identified with some region beyond the Punjab. reference in the *Udvogaparvan* to its having been famous for its horses seems to connect the Vāhlīka country with Kāmboja; this, together with the difficulty of approach to the country which is referred to in the account of Arjuna's digvijaya 2 may perhaps justify us in assuming that the tribe had its habitat somewhere in the neighbourhood of Gandhāra and Kāmboja. That the Vāhlīkas were settled beyond the Indus is definitely proved by the Meharauli Iron Pillar Inscription of Chandra, where the mighty King Chandra ³ is described as 'one . . . by whom having crossed in warfare the seven mouths of the Indus the Vahlikas were conquered '. Accordingly, the country of the Valhikas may perhaps be identified with the region now known as Balkh; in other words, the Vählikas should be identified

² Sabhābarvan.

¹ Also mentioned in Śiva Purāṇa, VII, 60, 20.

³ Chandra has been identified by some with Candravarman of the *Allahabad Pillar Inscription* of Samudragupta, as also with the king of the same name mentioned in the *Susunia Rock Inscription*.

with the 'Baktrioi' occupying the country near Arachosia in the time

of the geographer Ptolemy.1

The Uttarakānda of the Rāmāyana (Chap. 100, verse 3) refers to a dynasty of kings who are said to have descended from one Kārdama or Kardameya. They were related to the Aila race, and were associated with Valhi or Valhika over which they seem to have held sway. In another chapter of the *Uttarakānda* (103, verse 21) the Vāhli or Vahlika country is said to have been situated outside the Madhyadeśa, which must have extended as far as the Sarasvatī in the west. A Kārdamaka Vamsa or dynasty is referred to in the Kanheri Inscription of the minister (amātya) Šateraka. In his Political History of Ancient India (4th Edn., p. 423), Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhuri makes the illuminating suggestion that this Kardamaka Vamsa probably derived its name from the river Kardama in Pārasīka or Persia.² In that case Vāhlika, the home of the Kārdama or Kārdamaka kings, should be sought for somewhere in Persia; and we have a further justification for identifying the country of the Vāhlīkas with Balkh in Iran.3

The Vāhlīkas or Vālhīkas should *not* be identified with the Vāhīkas, who seem to have lived between the Sutlej and the Indus. A passage in the *Karṇaparvan* (Chap. 44) seems to describe their position:

' Śākalam nāma nagaramāpagā nāma nimnagā Jarttikā nāma Vāhīkāsteṣām Vṛttam suninditam' (verse 10).

'Satadrukām nadīm tīrttvā tāñca ramyām Irāvatīm' (verse 17).

This passage states that the Vāhīkas were also known as Jarttikas (= Jāt?) and Āraṭṭas,⁴ and that their capital was at Śākala,⁵ modern Sialkot, west of the Rāvi. Another portion of the same passage suggests that in the Āraṭṭa countries religion was in disrepute; it was thus an impure region, and the Aryans of Mid-India were forbidden to go there. This is also reflected in the Vārttikas of Pāṇini by Kātyāyana who derives the word Vāhīka from 'vahi' or 'bahi', meaning 'outside',—suggesting those who were outside the pale of Aryandom. According to Pāṇini and his scholiast Patañjali, Vāhīka was another name for the Pūnjab (IV, 2, 117; V, 3, 114;

¹ Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhuri, P.H.A.I., 4th Edn., p. 449, f.n.; and Ind. Ant., 1884, p. 408.

² Comm. on Arthaśästra, II, 11: Pārasīkeşu Karddama nāma nadī.

³ For fuller details of the Kārdamaka kings and their association with Vāhlika, see Ray Chaudhuri's paper on 'The Kārdamaka kings' in I.H.Q., Vol. IX, No. 1, Pp. 37-9.

The Āraṭṭas were the Arattai of the Periphus of the Erythrean Sea, p. 41.

It will be remembered that Śākala was King Milinda's capital.

Ind. Ant., I, 122). That the Vāhīkas were held in disrepute is also proved by verse 41 of the Karṇaparvan, which says:

'Vahiśca nāma Hīkaśca Vipāśāyām Piśācakau Tayorapatyam Vāhīkā naiṣā sṛṣṭiḥ prajāpateḥ.'

According to this verse, Vahi and Hīka were names of two Piśācas (demons) of the Vipāśā river (Beas). Their descendants, the Vāhīkas, were not (worthy of being called) 'a creation of Prajāpati' (the Creator).

CHAPTER XII

THE TRIGARTTAS

The earliest mention of the Trigarttas to which a fairly definite date can be assigned is made in the Astādhvāvī of Pānini, the celebrated grammarian, who flourished in the middle of the sixth century B.C. at the latest. Besides a direct reference to the tribe or country of the Trigarttas in a certain Sūtra,1 there are indirect references to the tribe in at least two other Sutras, according to the scholiast on Pānini. In 'na prācya Bhargādi Yaudheyādibhyah' (Sūtra IV. 1, 178) Bhargādi is said to stand for the regions (janabada) of the Bhargas, Karūsas, Kaśmīras, and Śālvas, whereas Yaudheyādi is taken to include the country or tribe of the Trigarttas as well as of the Yaudheyas (see chap. on Yaudheyas). The other reference to 'Yaudheyādi' is in Sūtra, V, 3, 117, which mentions the Yaudheyas (and Trigarttas implicitly) as forming an 'Ayudha-jīvī Samgha'. We may infer, then, that the Trigarttas, like the Yaudheyas, were a Ksatriya tribal republic depending mainly on arms. association of Trigarttas and Yaudheyas probably means that their territories were contiguous.

In the *Mahābhārata*, also, these two tribes are often associated, both having rallied on the side of Duryodhana.² Two Trigartta heroes famous as Saṃsaptakas (bound by an oath to kill others) seem to have played an important part in the Kurukṣetra war.³ The Trigarttas along with the Śālvas, Ambaṣṭhas, and other tribes were included in the army of Bhīṣma.⁴ In the course of the war the Trigarttas seem to have had a hard fight with Nakula, the fourth Pāṇḍava,⁵ while on another occasion their King Suśarmā fought a stiff battle with Arjuna.⁶ As a result of the war, the Trigarttas along with the Kaśmīras, Mālavas, Śivis, Yaudheyas, Ambaṣṭhas, and other tribes were totally defeated, and they all paid homage to Yudhisthira.⁷

¹ V, 3, 116: Dāmanyādi Trigarttaşaşthāchah.

² Sabhāparvan, Canto 52, 14-15; Dronaparvan, Canto 18, 16.

³ Udyogaparvan, Canto 57, 18. Before the actual war, five Trigartta brothers acted as agents of Duryodhana in harassing the Pāṇḍavas while they were living incognito in the Virāṭa country (Udyogaparvan, Canto 165, 9).

⁴ Bhīşmaparvan, Canto 20, 10, 12, 15; Canto 81, 3; Canto 82, 13.

⁵ *Ibid.*, Canto, 72, 7.

⁶ Ibid., 96, 17; 102, 22; 104, 8.

⁷ Sabhāparvan, 34, 7-12; 52, 14-15.

The Trigarttas, as described in the Mahābhārata, seem to have been a Punjab tribe. This is borne out not only by Hemachandra's Abhidhānacintāmani,1 which speaks of Trigartta and Jālandhara (modern Tullundur) as synonymous, but also by a reference in the Rājataranginī (V, 144), which implies that the tribe inhabited a region not far from Kashmir. Epigraphic evidence 2 as well points to the fact that modern Jullundur was the ancient Trigartta country. In the Purānas,3 the Trigarttas are reckoned among the mountain tribes. Cunningham identifies the Trigartta country with Kangra. which is situated in Jullundur between the mountains of Chamba and the upper course of the Beas.4 'Trigartta' is interpreted to be the land watered by the three rivers,—the Ravi, the Beas, and the Sutlej. 5 It is also explained as the country of the three strongholds. and is identified by some scholars with the modern hill-state of Kotoch, which is still called 'Trigartaka Mulk', or the region of the Trigarttas (Prof. Johnson's Selections from the Mahābhārata, p. 64, f.n. 8).6

The Trigartta tribe or country (janapada) is also mentioned in the Daśakumāracaritam in connection with Mitragupta's travels.⁷

Not very much is known of the authentic political history of Trigartta, but it seems certain that from about 700 to 1150 A.D., the country was practically a dependency of one or other of the Kashmir dynasties. From the Rajatarangini (V, 130-50), for instance, we learn that Kārkota Sankaravarman, King of Kashmir (c. 883-902 A.D.), set out on a series of expeditions to recover the lost possessions of his father Avantivarman. Then Prthvicandra. King of Trigartta, who had previously given his son Bhavacandra as a hostage, came towards Sankaravarman to do homage; but fearing capture, fled far away. Kalhana's description does not show that Trigartta was actually conquered, and Stein is probably right in assuming that no material success was achieved by Sankaravarman in the hills, east of the Ravi. The Trigartta country is said to have acknowledged the supremacy of the King of Kashmir during the reign (in Kashmir) of Ananta of the line of Abhinava (1028–63 A.D.).

⁷ B.S.S., p. 108.

¹ IV, 24—'Jālandharās-trigarttāḥ syuḥ'.

2 Ep. Ind., Vol. I, pp. 102, 116.

3 Mārkaṇḍeya P., 57, 57; Matsya P., 114, 56. The Brahmapurāṇa (14, 46)
refers to a daughter, Jijñāsā by name, of a certain Trigartta king, who was married to Śiśirāyanī.

⁴ Cunningham, A.S.R., V, p. 148; cf. Brhatsamhitā, Chap. 14; also Stein's Rājataranginī, Vol. I, p. 81.

⁵ Cunningham, A.S.R., V, p. 148.

⁶ According to Nundolal Dey, North Canara was also called Trigartta in ancient times (Gokarna-Bhāgavata, X, Chap. 79).

CHAPTER XIII

THE YAUDHEYAS

The Yaudheyas were a republican tribe of the Punjab known as early as the time of Pāṇini, the celebrated grammarian (c. sixth century B.C.), whose Sūtras contain what are probably the earliest reference to this people. In 'na prācya Bhargādi Yaudheyādibhyaḥ' (IV, 1, 178) the term Yaudheya-ādi includes the two tribes, Yaudheyas and Trigarttas (according to Scholiast). Elsewhere in the Sūtras (V, 3, 117) the Yaudheyas (counting the Trigarttas with them) are referred to as forming an 'Ayudha-jīvī Saṃgha', or a tribal republican organisation depending mainly on arms (cf. the name 'Yaudheya' = warrior).

The historical tradition of the tribe, however, goes back still farther than Pāṇini's time. The Purāṇas¹ refer to the Yaudheyas as having been descended from Uśīnara, while the Harivaṃśa too connects the Yaudheyas with the Uśīnaras.² According to Pargiter, King Uśīnara established the Yaudheyas, Ambaṣṭhas, Navarāṣṭra, and the city of Kṛmila, all on the Eastern border of the Punjab; while his famous son Śivi Auśīnara originated the Śivis or Śibis in Śivapura.³ In the Mahābhārata,⁴ the Yaudheyas are described as having been defeated by Arjuna, along with the Mālavas and Trigarttas; while in the Sabhāparvan (Chap. 52, 14-5), the Yaudheyas, together with the Śibis, the Trigarttas, and the Ambaṣṭhas, are represented as having paid homage to Yudhiṣṭhira. Elsewhere in the Great Epic (Droṇaparvan, Chap. 159, 5) the tribe is mentioned along with the Madrakas and Mālavas.⁵

The Brhatsamhitā places the Yaudheyas along with the Ārjunāyanas in the N. division of India. According to Ray Chaudhuri, they may have been connected with the Pandoouoi or Pāṇḍava tribe mentioned by Ptolemy as settled in the Punjab⁶;

² Harivamsa, Chap. 32; cf. also Pargiter, Mārk. P., p. 380.

⁸ A.I.H.T., p. 264.

⁴ Dronaparvan, Chap. 18, 16; Karnaparvan, Chap. 5, 48.

¹ Brahmāṇḍa Purāṇa, III, Chap. 74; Vāyu P., Chap. 99; Brahma P., Chap. 13; Matsya P., Chap. 48; Viṣṇu P., Chap. 17, etc.

^{5 &#}x27;Yaudheyānadrijān rājan Madrakān Mālavānapi'. Here 'Adrijān' has been interpreted by some as signifying a tribe, the 'Adrijas' (possibly = the Adraistai of the Greeks); but it seems more likely that it is simply an epithet qualifying the Yaudheyas ('mountain-born'). There is no mention in Sorensen's Index to the names in the Mahābhārata of 'adrija' used as the name of a tribe.

⁶ Ind. Ant., XIII, 331, 349.

for Yaudheya appears in the Mahābhārata (Ādiparvan, Chap. 95,

76) as the name of a son of Yudhisthira.1

Cunningham identifies the Yaudheyas with the Johiya Rajputs, and the country of the Yaudheyas with Johiyabar (= Yaudheya-vāra), the district around Multan. The Johiyas, he points out, are divided into three tribes; and he finds a strong confirmation of his identification in the fact that in the coins of the Yaudheya clan there can be traced the existence of three different tribes. These coins are of three classes, of which the first bears the simple inscription: 'jaya-Yaudheya-gaṇasya', i.e. '(money) of the victorious Yaudheya tribe'. The second class has 'dvi' at the end of the legend, and the third has 'tri', which are taken by Rapson to be contractions for 'dvitiyasya' and 'tritiyasya', or second and third, as the money of the second and third tribes of the Yaudheyas. As the coins are found to the West of the Sutlej, it is almost certain that they belong to the Johiyas who now occupy the line of the Sutlej.²

The Yaudheyas are known from the Bijayagadh (Bijegarh?) Stone Inscription ³ (C.I.I., Vol. III, pp. 250-1) to have occupied the Bijayagadh region of the Bharatpur State, and we may assume that they had extended their rule quite far to the South by about 150 A.D., the date of the Junāgarh (Kathiawar) Inscription of Rudradāman, ⁴ which contains that monarch's boast of having 'rooted out the Yaudheyas'. The tribe was not entirely extinguished, however, for in the Allahabad Pillar Inscription of Samudragupta (fourth century A.D.) the Yaudheyas are included in the list of tribal states who paid him homage (Mālavas, Ārjunāyanas, Yaudheyas, Madrakas, Ābhīras, Prārjunakas, Kākas, and Kharaparikas).⁵

¹ Ray Chaudhuri, P.H.A.I., 4th Edn., p. 457.

² Cunningham, Ancient Geography, p. 245; pp. 281-2. Rapson, Indian Coins, p. 14.

³ Paleographically the inscription is of an early date, the characters being of the so-called Indo-Scythic form. The leader of the Yaudheya tribe who is referred to in the inscription is styled Mahārāja and Mahāsenāpati.

⁴ Ep. Ind., Vol. VIII, pp. 36ff.

⁵ Ray Chaudhuri, P.H.A.I., 4th Edn., p. 457.

CHAPTER XIV

THE KEKAYAS

The Kekavas were a well-known tribe of Ancient India, and played an important part not only in the events recorded in the Rāmāvana, but also in the great Kuruksetra war of the Mahābhārata. They were known as early as the Satapatha Brāhmana and the Chāndogya Upanisad, and continued for some considerable time to be one of the important tribes of the Punjab. The territory of the Kekayas, according to the Rāmāyana, lay beyond the river Vipāśā (Beas) and extended up to the borders of the ancient Gandhara kingdom. According to the Puranic tradition,2 the Kekayas were descended from the (non-Aryan) Anu tribe or the family known as the Anavas, who appear from the Rigveda (8, 74) to have dwelt in the same territory of the Punjab as that later occupied by the Kekayas (according to the Rāmāyana). Rājaśekhara in his Kāvyamīmāmsā places the Kekaya country in the northern division (Uttarāpatha) of India, along with the Sakas, Hūnas. Kāmboias. Vāhlikas, etc. In the Mahābhārata they are associated with the Vāhlikas, while in the Purānas more emphasis seems to be laid on their association with the Madras.

The earliest known king of the Kekayas was Aśvapati.³ He was a theologian who is said to have instructed a number of Brāhmaṇas. The name of a Kekaya king several times referred to in the Rāmāyaṇa ⁴ was also Aśvapati; but it is difficult to say whether the two were identical. King Aśvapati of the Rāmāyaṇa was the father of Kaikeyī, second queen of Daśaratha, and maternal grandfather of Bharata (Ayodhyākāṇḍa, Chap. 70). The capital city of King Aśvapati, according to the Rāmāyaṇa, was Rājagrha or Girivraja, ⁵ identified by Cunningham with Jālālpur on the Jhelum (= Giryak: Cunningham's Arch. Sur. Rep., II). We learn from

¹ II, 68, 19–22; VII, Chaps. 113-4.

3 Satapatha Brāhmana, X, 6, 1, 2; Chāndogya Up., V, 11, 4 et seq.

² Brahmānda P., III, 74; Vāyu P., Chap. 99; Brahma P., Chap. 13; Harivamša (Chap. 31); Matsya P., Chap. 48; Viṣṇu P., IV, Chap. 18; Garuda P., I, Chap. 139; and Bhāgavata P., IX, Chap. 23.

⁴ Ādikānda, Cantos XII, LXXIV, LXXXVII; Ayodhyākānda, Cantos II, XXXV, XXXVII, etc.

⁵ Rām., II, 67, 7; II, 68, 22. This Girivraja or Rājagrha is not to be confused with the Girivraja or Rājagrha of Magadha (S.B.E., XIII, p. 150).

Jaina sources that one-half of the Kekaya kingdom was Aryan, and the Kekaya city was known as Seyaviya.¹

The Kekayas fought on Duryodhana's side in the Kurukṣetra war. They seem from the Purāṇas ² to have been intimately related to the Uśīnaras and the Śivis, for they were traditionally descended from one of the four sons of Śivi Uśīnara. The latter is said to have originated the Śivis in Śivapura and extending his conquests westwards, to have founded through his four sons the kingdoms of the Vṛṣadarbhas, Madras, Kekayas or Kaikeyas, and Suvīras or Sauvīras.³ In the Viṣṇupurāṇa mention is made of a king of Kekaya or Kaikeya named Dhṛṣṭaketu (Bk., IV, Chap. XIV).

A branch of the Kekayas seems in later times to have migrated as far south as the Mysore country, where they established a settlement. They were probably an ancient ruling family of Mysore, and were connected by marriage with the Ikṣvākus, a famous royal dynasty, known from inscriptions discovered from the ruins of the Jagayyapeta stūpa in the Kṛṣṇā district,⁴ as well as from Nāgārjunikoṇḍa.⁵

¹ Ind. Ant., 1891, 375.

² Vāyu P., Chap. 99; Matsya P., Chap. 48; Viṣṇu P., IV, Chap. 18; Agni P., Chap. 276, etc.

³ Pargiter, A.I.H.T., p. 264. See also Chap. on Yaudheyas, for further information about Sivi and his father Usinara.

⁴ Dubreuil, A.H.D., pp. 88, 101; see also Archaeological Survey of South India, Vol. I, pp. 110-111.

⁵ Ed. Vogel, Ep. Indica, Vols. XX, XXI; Annual Report of South Indian Epigraphy, 1926, p. 92; 1927, pp. 71–74.

CHAPTER XV

THE ABHIRAS

The Ābhīras as a tribe are well-known in the history of ancient India. Probably coming into prominence for the first time during the age roughly covered by the Epics, at a later period they came to occupy an independent kingdom, and establish more centres than one in the country. The tribe can still be traced in the present Āhīrs (Āhīr being the Prakrit form of the Sanskrit word Ābhīra) who, in tribal groups, abound largely in the United Provinces, Bihar, Nepal and some portions of Rajputana. They are a band of simple,

sturdy people, mostly cowherds and agriculturists.

According to the Mahābhārata (Sabhāparvan, Chap. 51), the Ābhīras were located in the western division of India (Aparāntaka). The Epic evidence is supported by that of the author of the Periplus of the Erythrean Sea, a Greek record of commercial geography of the first century B.C., as well as by Ptolemy, the Greek geographer who flourished in the middle of the second century A.D. Later epigraphic evidence also definitely places the Ābhīras in the west, but the Purāṇas seem to locate them in the northern division or Uttarāpatha. 'The fact seems to be', says Wilson, 'that the people along the Indus, from Surat to the Himalayas, are often regarded as either western or northern nations, according to the topographical position of the writer'. A more definite location of the tribe is provided by a śloka in the Mahābhārata, which places them in West Rajputana, 'where the Sarasvatī disappears'.2

The Mahābhāṣya of Patañjali (second century B.C.) is perhaps the earliest authority that introduces the Ābhīras into Indian history. At 1, 2, 3 of that work, the Ābhīras are associated with the Śūdras, who are most likely identical with the Sodrai or Sogdoi of Greek historians of Alexander's time. The tradition of their association with the Śūdras is upheld not only by the above-mentioned śloka of the Mahābhārata (IX, 37, 1), but also by the Purāṇas. The Viṣṇupurāṇa places them in the extreme west along with the Surāṣṭras, Śūdras, Arbudas, Kārūṣas, and Mālavas, dwelling along the Pāripātra mountains. The Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa (Chap. 57, verses 35, 36) groups the Ābhīras with the Vāhlikas, Vāṭadhānas, Śūdras,

² Mbh., IX, 37, 1.

¹ Wilson, Vișnu Purāna, II, 168, f.n. 4.

Some scholars read Śūra for Śūdra.

⁴ Vișnu P., Ed. Wilson, Bk. II, Chap. III, pp. 132-5.

Madrakas, Surāṣṭras, and Sindhu-Sauvīras, all of whom are said to have occupied tracts of country that are included in the Aparāntaka or western country. According to Pargiter, the Ābhīras who are referred to in the *Mahābhārata* had something to do with the events following the great Kurukṣetra war: 'Some years after the battle, the Yādavas of Gujarat were ruined by fratricidal strife, and Kṛṣṇa died. Under Arjuna's leadership they abandoned Dvārakā (on which the sea encroached) and Gujarat and retreated northwards, but were attacked and broken up by the rude Abhīras of Rajputana'.¹

Both Ptolemy and the *Periplus* stress the close association of the Ābhīras and the Surāṣṭras. The *Periplus* mentions the country of Aberia (doubtless identical with Ābhīra) and its seaboard Syrastrene (= Surāṣṭra); while Ptolemy speaks of Abiria (= Aberia = Ābhīra) as having been included in Indo-Scythia, by which was meant practically the whole of the country along the lower course of the Indus. Indo-Scythia in Ptolemy's time was divided into three parts, viz. Syrastrēnē (Surāṣṭra), Patalene (= Skt. Pātāla), and Ābiria (Skt. Ābhīra),—Abiria being identified with the region east of the Indus, above the insular portion formed by its bifurcation.²

By the middle of the second century B.C. the Abhīras and their country must have been overpowered by the Bactrian Greeks who, not long after the expedition of Antiochus the Great (Antiochus III of Syria, 223—187 B.C.), had planned to extend their kingdom to the south of the Hindu Kush. It seems that these Bactrian Greeks occupied the whole of the country which Ptolemy designates as Indo-Scythia, and which included Aberia or Abiria. In Ptolemy's time, however, the Abiria or Abhīra country was ruled over by the Saka rulers or Ksatrapas of W. India, who seem to have held sway over the entire realm of Indo-Scythia (cf. the Junagadh Inscription of the Saka ruler Rudradaman who flourished in the second century A.D.; Ep. Ind., Vol. VIII, pp. 36ff.). The Gunda Inscription of the Saka king Rudra Simha (A.D. 181), who was third in succession from Rudradaman, refers to an Abhira general named Rudrabhūti who excavated a tank in his realm. Shortly afterwards 8 we find a certain Iśvaradatta, who was probably a native of Abhīra, holding the office of Mahākṣatrapa. It is likely that Īśvaradatta was the same person as Isvarasena,4 an Abhīra king (son of

¹ A.I.H.T., p. 284.

² See Chap. on Surāstras, and McCrindle's Ptolemy, pp. 136, 139-40.

³ 188-90 A.D., according to Prof. Bhandarkar; but Rapson assigns Isvaradatta to the period after 236 A.D.

⁴ It is also suggested that this dynasty of Isvarasena is identical with the Traikutaka line of Aparanta, and that the establishment of the Traikutaka era in A.D. 248 marks the date at which the Abhīras succeeded the Sātavāhanas in the

Śivadatta), who became Mahākṣatrapa of W. India and wrested from the Sātavāhanas, probably in the third century A.D., portions at least of Mahārāṣṭra, which was ruled over by them up till the reign of Yajñaśrī Sātakarṇī.

The Ābhīras are next mentioned in the celebrated Allahabad Iron Pillar Inscription of Samudragupta (2nd quarter of the fourth century A.D.) as one of the tribal states of W. and S.W. India who paid homage to the great Gupta emperor, and who were thus a semi-independent people living outside the borders of his empire.

If the traditional and legendary history of Nepal as contained in the Vaṃśāvalis has any historical value, the Ābhīras or Āhīrs had a settlement in Nepal in very early times. The traditional history of Nepal as recorded in the Vaṃśāvalis begins with a long line of legendary kings, after which the country was taken possession of by a line of Kirāta pretenders, whose passing away probably marks the entry of Nepal into the domain of fairly precise historical tradition. These Kirātas were succeeded by eight princes belonging to the Gopāla dynasty. The Gopālas in their turn were supplanted by the Ābhīras.

The tribe seems to have had another settlement in the South or Dakṣiṇāpatha. According to the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa,¹ the Ābhīras are classed with the Puṇḍrakas, Keralas, Kaliṅgas, Pulindas, Andhras, Vidarbhas, Kuntalas and others, all of whom are said to be Dakṣiṇāpatha-vāsinaḥ, or dwelling in the southern country. The Vāyupurāṇa also records the same tradition (Chap. 45, 126), and describes the Ābhīras, Ātabyas, Śabaras, Pulindas, Vaidarbhas and Daṇḍakas as 'Dakṣiṇāpatha-vāsinaḥ'.

government of northern Mahārāṣṭra and the adjoining region. The last known rulers of the Traikuṭaka line were Indradatta, his son, Dharasena and his son, Vyāghrasena — Ray Chaudhuri, P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., p. 418, f.n. 2.

¹ Chap. 57, vv. 45-8; Chap. 58, v. 22.

CHAPTER XVI

THE SIBIS

The Sibis (or Sivas) seem to have been a very ancient people. They were a petty tribe occupying some tract in the Western Punjab, whence they seem later to have migrated or sent offshoots southwestwards to Sind and Rajputana and southwards as far as the Chola country.

They are probably alluded to for the first time in the *Rgveda* (VII, 18, 7) where the Sivas, doubtless the same people as the Sibis, are grouped together with four other minor tribes, viz. the Alinas, Pakhtas, Bhalānasas and Viśāṇins, who were all defeated by the combined army of King Sudās.¹ But whatever the fate of the other four tribes after their defeat, the Sivas seem to have maintained their independent existence for some considerable time, for they are referred to not only by the Greek geographers and historians of Alexander's time, but also by the Scholiast on *Pāṇini* (IV, 2, 109). Their King Śivi, son of Uśīnara, is mentioned in Baudhāyana's Śrauta Sūtra (III, 53, 22). There can hardly be any doubt as to the identity of the *Rgvedic* Śivas with the Sibai or Siboi of the Greeks² who dwelt between the Indus and the Akesines (= Asiknī of the *R.V.*; mod. Chandrabhāgā or Chenab) in Alexander's time.

'When the army of Alexander', states Arrian, 'came among the Sibai, an Indian tribe, and noticed that they wore skins, they declared that the Sibai were descended from those who belonged to the expedition of Herakles, and had been left behind; for besides being dressed in skins, the Sibai carry a cudgel, and brand on the backs of their oxen the representation of a club, wherein the Macedonians recognised a memorial of Herakles.' (Arrian, op. cit.) He continues: 'If any one believes all this, this must be another Herakles, not the Theban, but either the Tyrian or the Egyptian, or even some great King who belonged to the upper country which lies not far from India'. It seems reasonable to suppose, from the above description of their dress and weapons, that the tribe belonged to a racial group not distinctly Aryan. They are said to have had

40.000 foot-soldiers at the time of Alexander.

¹ The 'war of the ten kings' is sometimes interpreted as a struggle between the Aryans (under Sudās) and the pre-Aryans; in which case the Sivas or Sibis were not Aryans, but probably Sumerians.

² Arrian, Indica, V, 12; Diodorus, XVII, 96.

An earlier reference to this people is found in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (VIII, 23, 10), where mention is made of Amitratapana, a king of the Śivis. A place called Śivapura or 'town of the Śivas' is mentioned by the Scholiast on Pāṇini¹ as situated in the northern country. Śivapura must be identical with Śibipura, mentioned in a Shorkot Inscription (Ep. Ind., 1921, p. 16); and Dr. Vogel takes the mound of Shorkot to be the site of the city of the Śibis. Another scholar points out that local tradition also connects Shorkot with Śiva.² Thus we may conclude that the Śivas or Śibis were a people inhabiting the Shorkot region in Jhang in the Punjab, lying between the Irāvatī and the Chandrabhāgā, and therefore included in the northern region or Uttarāpatha.

The Sivas or Sibis seem to have migrated, or rather sent one or more of their offshoots southwards to Raiputana. It is difficult to say exactly when this movement took place, but early references to a geographical location of the tribe other than in the Punjab are found in the Jatakas and in the Mahābhārata. The Jatakas mention a Sivi king and his country with two of its cities, Aritthapura and Jetuttara. Aritthapura (Skt. Arittapura) is probably identical with Ptolemy's Aristobothra in the north of the Punjab 4 and may perhaps be the same as Dvārāvatī.5 Jetuttara or Jettuttara is identified by N. L. Dev with Nagari, a locality 11 miles north of Chitore.⁶ It is evidently the Jattararur of Alberuni, the capital of Mewar. That the Sibis had a habitat near Chitore is attested by other sources as well; a number of coins inscribed with the legend Majhamikāya Sivijanapadasa' have been discovered in the territory near Nāgari,—indicating that the janapada or country of the Sibis was located in Madhyamikā, near Chitore in Rajputana. On the testimony of these coins we also learn that the Sibis formed a ganarāstra or some sort of republican state. This seems to have some support from the Vessantara Jātaka, where we read that the king of the Sibis 8 was compelled to banish prince Vessantara in obedience to the demand of his people,—indicating that if not an absolute republic, this community at least had what we may call democratic institutions.

¹ See Patañjali, IV, 2, 2; Vedic Index, II, pp. 381-2.

² Mazumdai, C.A.G.I., p. 669; Sivapura = Siaura = Shor. C.A.S.R., V, pp. 97–103.

⁸ Šivi Jātaka, No. 499; Ummadantī Jātaka, No. 527; Vessantara Jātaka, No. 547.

⁴ N. I. Dey, Geographical Dictionary, p. 11. ⁵ Jātaka (Fausböll), VI, p. 421; cf. Dey, p. 187.

⁶ Geographical Dictionary, p. 81.

⁷ Alberuni's India, I, p. 202.

⁸ Cf. also Sivikarāja, which was the Tathāgata's name in a previous birth, referred to in Beal's Records of the Western World, I, pp. xvi-cvii, 125.

The Sivas or Sibis were intimately associated with the Usinaras. who are assigned by the Aitareya Brāhmana to the Madhvadeśa or 'Middle Country', together with the Kurus, the Pañcālas, and the Vasas or Vatsas. The Anukramanī of the Rgveda ascribes one hymn (X, 119) to Sivi Ausīnara, i.e. the Sivi who is descended from Uśīnara: while the Mahābhārata refers not only to a king Uśīnara Sibi (Mbh., Sāntiparvan, Chap. 29, 39) but also to a Sibi-rāṣṭra or kingdom of the Sibis ruled by King Uśīnara (III, 130-i). It is, therefore, likely that the Usinara country was at one time the habitat of the Sibis. According to the tradition as recorded in the Epics and Purānas, Šivi was one of the five sons of King Usīnara, each of whom founded a city. The city of Sivi was known as Sivapura. Sivi had four sons who came to be known as Sivis, giving their name to the tribe to which they belonged. According to Pargiter, Sivi Ausīnara not only originated the Sivis in Sivapura but, extending his conquests westwards, founded through his four sons (Vrsadarbha, Suvīra, Kekaya, and Madraka) the kingdoms of the Vrsadarbhas, Suvīras (or Sauvīras), Kekayas, and Madras, thus occupying the whole of the Punjab except the north-western corner.1

King Sivi Ausīnara bears a legendary name for piety and humanity. The well-known and very popular fable of the hawk and

the pigeon immortalises this king's spirit of self-sacrifice.2

In the Mahābhārata description of the tribes, kings, and princes, who were ranged on Duryodhana's side in the Kurukṣetra war, the Sivis are grouped with the foreign tribes, Sakas, Kirātas, Yavanas and Vasātis. As the Yavanas and Sakas did not appear in Indian history before the fifth and second centuries B.C. respectively, the passage in which the mention of these tribes occurs, must be regarded as a later interpolation; but however that may be, the fact that the Sivis are grouped with the 'foreigners' is significant, and it is not unlikely that the tradition has a historical foundation.

Still later, the Sivis seem to have migrated to the extreme south of India. The *Daśakumāracaritam* (*Madhya*, Chap. VI) refers to a settlement of the Sivis on the banks of the Kāverī. The southern

¹ See Chap. on *Uśīnaras*; and Pargiter, *Ancient Indian Historical Tradition*, pp. 41 and 264.

² Mbh., III, Chap. 196; Chap. 207; XIII, Chap. 67; XIV, Chap. 90. In the Dronaparvan version (Chaps. 130-131) Sivi's father, Uśīnara, is the hero of the fable. Both l'ā-Hien and Hsuan Tsang place the scene of the story in Udyāṇa now called the Swat Valley where a steatite relief (now in the British Museum) representing the fable as given in the Mbh. has been discovered. It is, therefore, probable that the present Swat Valley represents the ancient kingdom of Sivi. But according to the Mahā-Ummaga Jātaka the Sivi country was situated between the kingdoms of Videha and Pañcāla (Dey, Geographical Dicty., pp. 187-8).

Śivis, according to Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhuri,¹ are probably to be identified with the Chola ruling family.² The Śivi country of the south may be identical with the Śivikā country which is placed among the southern countries by Varāhamihira in his *Bṛhatsaṃhitā* (Chap. XIV, verse 12).

¹ Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 205, f.n. 5.

² Keilhorn, List of Southern Inscriptions, No. 685.

CHAPTER XVII

THE DARADAS

The Daradas were a tribe of N.W. India, well-known both to indigenous and to foreign traditions. They are referred to in the Mahābhārata as having joined the Kaurava forces, and as having been defeated by Vāsudeva, along with the Khaśas, Śakas, Yavanas, Trigarttas, Mālavas and others.¹ The Viṣṇupurāṇa associates them with the Ābhīras and Kāśmīras²; while in the Matsyapurāṇa³ the country of the Daradas is linked with Gandhāra, Śivapura, Urja, Aurasa and other districts forming the basin of the Sindhu (= Indus). The Epic and Puranic traditions seem therefore to locate the Daradas in the north-west along the north-west frontier of Kashmīr, and contiguously with the realm of the Khasas in the upper Punjab. They were probably a mountainous tribe, for 'mountain is the commonest meaning of the word darad from which they appear to have derived their name'.

The Greek writers knew this people by various names. Strabo mentions them as Derdai, Pliny as Dardae; while in Dionys. Periêg. (V, 1138) their name is given as Dardanoi. Ptolemy refers to the same people as Daradrai, the additional r evidently being inserted by mistake. He locates them east of the Lambatai (= Lampāk or Lamghan) and of Sonestane (= basin of the Swat river), and to the north of the uppermost course of the Indus. The mountains in the country of the Daradas, he says, are of surpassing height.

The Daradas were an important factor in the history of Kashmīr,

and are often referred to in the Rajataranginī.

The country once inhabited by the Daradas still retains clear traces of the ancient name, being known as Dardistan, the district of the Dardo.

¹ Dronaparvan, Chap. 10, 18.

² Wilson's Ed., II, p. 184.

⁸ CXXI, 45-51.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE KĀRŪSAS OR KARŪSAS

The Kārūsas or Karūsas were a well-known tribe of ancient India, who are often referred to in the Epics, particularly in the Throughout the whole range of Mahābhārata and the Purānas. early and later Vedic literature they are scarcely mentioned, and their sudden emergence in the period of the Epics and Purānas suggests that they had been an insignificant tribe inhabiting a region included in or continuous with the janapada of the Cedis, with whom they are constantly associated in the Mahābhārata.¹ The Padmapurāna (IV, Chap. 274, 16-17) moreover, tells us that Dantavakra, King of Karūsa, was of Caidya lineage. The evidence as recorded in the Mahābhārata and the Purānas seems to point to the fact that Dantavakra and his father Vrddhasarman had been reigning in the time of the Pāndavas.² According to the Visnupurāna (Bk., IV, Chap. XIV) Vrddhaśarman married Srutadevi, who bore him the fierce Asura Dantavakra. The Vāyupurāna, however, does not call him an Asura, but King of the Karūsas. According to the Padmapurāna (Pātala, Chap. 35) Dantavakra was killed by Krsna in Mathurā (vide also N. I. Dey, G.D.A.M.I., p. 2). King Dantavakra is said to have had a foster-daughter named Prthā, who was married to Pandu.3. Their contemporaries in the contiguous territories were Dāmaghosa, his son Sisupāla Sunītha, and grandson Dhrstaketu, kings of Cedi; and Virāta, king of Matsya.4 The Karūsa royal family was connected by marriage not only with that of the Cedis but also with those of the Yādavas (i.e. Vāsudeva, Krsna and all his relations, and the Pauravas).5

We must turn to the Purāṇas for the legendary account of the origin of the Kārūṣas. All the Purāṇas agree in saying that Vaivasvata Manu had nine sons : namely Ikṣvāku, Nābhāga

¹ Bhīṣmaparvan, Chap. 47, 4; Chap. 54, 8; Chap. 56, 9; Droṇaparvan, Chap. 8, 28; Chap. 20, 23; Karṇaparvan, Chap. 56, 2, etc.

² Mbh., II, Chap. 13, 575, 577; Vāyu Purāṇa, Chap. 96, 255; Viṣṇu P., IV, Chap. 14, 11; Brahmāṇḍa P., III, Chap. 71, 156, etc.

Brahma P., Chap. 14, 122.
 Pargiter: A.I.H.T., p. 119.

⁵ Ibid., 166-7, f.n. 1; Vāyu Purāṇa, Chap. 96, 148-159; Matsya P., Chap. 46, 3-9; Viṣṇu P., IV, Chap. 14, 10-13, etc.

⁶ According to the *Mahābhārata*, I, Chap. 75, Manu had fifty other sons, all of whom perished through mutual dissensions.

(= Nabhāga or Nṛga), Dhṛṣṭa, Saryāti, Narisyanta, Praṃśu, Nābhānediṣṭha, Karūṣa, and Pṛṣadhra.¹ From Karūṣa were descended the numerous Kṣatriya clans of the Kārūṣas. They were all determined fighters, and are said to have protected N. India,—perhaps from southern inroads as Pargiter suggests (A.I.H.T., p. 255 and f.n. 14).²

The Kārūsas had different settlements at different periods; the

location of the principal ones may be described as follows:-

- I. (A) In the Mahābhārata they are often mentioned along with the Matsyas, Kāśīs, Cedis, and Pañcālas (Bhīṣmaparvan, Chap. 47, 4; Chap. 56, 13; Chap. 54, 8; Droṇaparvan, Chap. 8, 28; Chap. 20, 23, etc.). The Viṣṇupurāṇa mentions them together with the Matsyas, Cedis, and Bhojas (Wilson, II, pp. 156-90). Pargiter therefore suggests that the country of the Kārūṣas lay to the south of Kāśī and Vatsa, between Cedi on the west and Magadha on the east enclosing the Kaimur hills,—i.e. it was equivalent to the country of Rewa, from the Ken river in the west to the confines of Bihar in the east.³
- (B) The Bālakāṇḍa (XXVII, 18-23) of the Rāmāyaṇa would seem to indicate a slight difference of locality; it seems to locate the tribe in the district now known as Shahabad (Bihar),—whence they probably migrated south-west to the region indicated by the Mahābhārata. According to tradition, the southern district of Shahabad between the river Son and Karmanāśā was called Karukhdeśa or Karushadeśa. This tradition is supported by a modern local inscription found at Masār in the Shahabad district, designating the territory as Karūṣadeśa. Moreover, Vedagarbhapurī or modern Buxar is referred to in the Brahmāṇḍapurāṇa (Purvakhaṇḍa, Chap. 5) as being situated in Karūṣa.

II. The Kārūṣas probably had another settlement in the territory known in ancient times as Puṇḍra, or Puṇḍravardhana, roughly identical with N. Bengal; for according to the Bhāgavata-purāṇa (X, Chap. 66) Karūṣa seems to have been another name for Pundra.

III. In the Vāyu (Chap. 45), Matsya (Chap. 114, 54), and Mārkaṇdeya (Chap. 57, 53-5) Purāṇas, the Kārūṣas are said to have occupied the ridge of the Vindhyas (Vindhapṛṣṭha-nivāsinah). In the

¹ Vāyu P., Chap. 85, 3-4; Brahma P., Chap. 7, 1-2; Šiva P., VIII, Chap. 60, 1-2; Kūrma P., I, Chap. 20, 4-6, etc.

² For references to Karūṣas, see Vāyu P., Chap. 86, 2-3; Garuḍa P., Chap. 142, 4; Viṣṇu P., IV, Chap. I, 14; Śiva P., VII, Chap. 60, 31; Bhāgavata P., XX, 2, 16.

⁸ J.A.S.B., 1895, p. 255; J.R.A.S., 1914, p. 271; Pāṇini, IV, 1, 178.

⁴ Martin's Eastern India, Vol. I, p. 405; cf. Dey, Geographical Dictionary, p. 95. ⁵ Cunningham, A.S.R., III, pp. 67-71.

Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa, they are mentioned along with the Keralas and Utkalas, and in the Brahmāṇḍapurāṇa with the Mālavas, Utkalas, and Daśārṇas (all dwelling in the Vindhya region); while in the Viṣṇupurāṇa (Bk. II, Chap. III) they are associated with the Arbudas and Mālavas. Further, the Viṣṇupurāṇa definitely refers to them as dwelling along the Pāripātra hills. In the Bālakāṇḍa of the Rāmāyaṇa (XXIV, 18) the Karūṣas and the Maladas are named together; the Maladas are probably the Molindae of Pliny, whereas the Kārūṣas may be identified with the Chrysei.¹

The Kārūṣas figure in the Kurukṣetra war along with the Kekayas, Pañcālas, Matsyas, Cedis and Kosalas, who rallied on the side of the Pāṇḍavas.² At one time during the war, the Cedi, Kāśī, and Kārūṣa peoples seem to have been led by Dhṛṣṭaketu, King of the Cedis.³ Another King of the Cedis was Vasu, a descendant of Kuru, who having conquered the Yādava kingdom of Cedi, extended his conquests eastwards as far as Magadha, and apparently north-west also, over Matsya. He divided his territories of Magadha, Cedi, Kauśāmbī, Karūṣa, and Matsya among his five sons (see Chap. on Cedis).

¹ M. V. St. Martin's Etude sur la Geog. Grecque, p. 199.

² See *Udyoga*, *Bhīṣma* and *Drona Parvans*.

³ Udyogaparvan, Chap. 108, 2; Bhīşmaparvan, Chap. 56, 13.

CHAPTER XIX

KULATAS OR KULŪTAS

The Kūrmaniveśa section of the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa (LVII, 49) mentions a tribe called Kulaṭas, and another named Kuruṭas (LVII, 51). Both seem to be results of a confusion with the well-known tribe or people known in history as the Kulūṭas. The Karṇaparvan of the Mahābhārata refers to the latter which seems to be identical with the Kolūta or Kolūka of the Kiṣkindhyā Kāṇḍa of the Rāmāyaṇa (XI,III, and annotations). Pargiter (Mārk., p. 382, note) long ago identified the land of the Kulūṭas with the modern Kulu near the source of the Beas which is upheld by a reference to them in later literature of more reliable historical import.

The Kulūṭas seem to have been a tribal republic. Inscriptions and coins testify to the existence of many such republics even in the days of Scythian invasions, among whom the Mālavas, Yaudheyas and Ārjunāyanas were the most important, the Audumbaras Kulūṭas, Kunindas and the Uttamabhadras being only second in

rank (Camb. Hist. of India, Vol. I, pp. 528-9).

Yuan Chwang, the celebrated Chinese pilgrim, refers to a country named Ku-lu-to (Watters, I, p. 298) which place he reached from Jalandhara after having travelled north-east, across mountains and ravines, by hazardous paths, for above 700 li. region, says he, was entirely surrounded by mountains. Its capital was 14 or 15 li in circuit. It had a rich soil and yielded regular crops, and it had a rich vegetation. The climate grew gradually cold and there was little snow. There were in the country twenty Buddhist monasteries with above 1,000 brethren of whom the most were Mahāyānists, a few adhering to the Hīnayāna school. temples, there were fifteen, and the professed non-Buddhists lived pell-mell. Cunningham long ago identified this Kiu-lu-to country of Yuan Chwang 'with the position of the Kullu district in the Upper valley of Byas river'. The position is roughly identical with the modern Kangra district.

Another important reference to the Kulūṭa people is also found in the introduction of Bālabhārata or Pracanḍapānḍava of Rājaśekhara wherein the poet describes the victories of Mahīpāla of the Pratihāra dynasty. Mahīpāla is there credited with having defeated the Kulūṭas along with the Muralas, Mekalas, Kalingas, Keralas, Kuntalas and the Ramaṭhas (Nirṇayasāgar Press Ed. of Bālabhārata, I, 7-8).

CHAPTER XX

THE KULINDAS

The Kulindas were a small N. Indian tribe, sometimes confounded with the Pulindas. They are mentioned in the *Mahābhārata* ¹ along with the Paiśācas, Ambaṣṭhas and Barbaras, who are all described as mountainous people. McCrindle informs us that in another passage of the *Mahābhārata* they are mentioned in a long list of tribes 'dwelling between Meru and Mandāra and upon the Śailodā river, under the shadow of the Bambu forests, whose kings presented lumps of ant-gold at the solemnity of the inauguration of Yudhiṣṭhira as universal emperor'.²

The country of the Kulindas is referred to by Ptolemy as Kulindrine. He locates it near the mountainous region where the Vipāśā, Śatadru, Yamunā and Gangā have their sources. Cunningham identifies Kulindrine with the kingdom of Jālandhara (Jullundur),³ but this is not accepted by Saint-Martin. A territory of the name of Kuluta, which was formed by the upper part of the Vipāśā basin, and which may be included in Ptolemy's Kulindrine, is mentioned in a Varāha Samhitā list. It was visited by the Chinese pilgrim Hsüan Tsang, who calls it K'in-lu-to. The name still exists under the slightly modified form of Koluta.⁴

The Kulindas were probably identical with the Kunindas, a tribe known from coins,⁵ and located in the W. Punjab along with the Mālavas, Yaudheyas, Ārjunāyanas, Udumbaras, Kulūtas and Uttamabhadras.

Dronaparvan, Chap. 119, 14.
 C.A.G.I., p. 157.

² McCrindle's *Ptolemy*, p. 110. ⁴ McCrindle, *Ptolemy*, p. 110.

⁵ Cambridge History of Ancient India, I, pp. 528-9.

CHAPTER XXI

THE BARBARAS

The Barbaras, a 'barbarian' tribe, are associated in the Mahābhārata 1 with the Ambasthas, Paisācas, Kulindas, etc., and also with the Yaunas, Kāmbojas, Gandhāras and Kirātas, in a passage which definitely states that these tribes were located in the Uttarāpatha or northern country.2 The Matsyapurāna associates them with the Tusāras, Pahlavas, Pāradas, Sakas, Urias, Aurasas and other tribes whose countries are said to have been watered by the Caksu stream of the Ganges before it entered the sea (CXXI, 45-51). The Mārkandeya Purāna (LVII, 39) places them in the Sindhu country, and the Brhatsamhitā refers to them as a north or north-west tribe.

The commentary on Kautilya's Arthaśāstra has some interesting remarks on the Barbara country, and its river Srotasi, which was a source of pearls. Alakanda, a city famous for its pearls, stood on this river. There was also a lake named Srighanta in a corner of the sea of Barbara.³ S. N. Mazumdar sees in Alakanda a remnant of Alexander's name, and he identifies the city with Alexander's Haven.4 V. A. Smith (Early History of India, p. 110, 4th Ed.) points out that the large lake at the mouth of the river where Alexander's Haven stood (near Karachi) still exists. This lake may be identified with the lake Śrīghanta mentioned in the Artha*śāstra* commentary.

Mazumdar remarks 5 that Barbara is mentioned in an Avurvedic work called *Rājanighantu*; and Barbarika, evidently a city of the Barbaras, in another Ayurvedic work, Dhanvantarīyanighantu. This Barbarika (the Barbarei of Ptolemy 6) is evidently the Barbaricum or Barbaricon emporium mentioned in the Periplus of the Ervthraean Sea (prob. circa 80 A.D.). It was at that time a market town and port, was situated on the middle mouth of the Indus, and included in the Saka country whose metropolis was Minnagar. Barbarika and Patala (the latter identified by V. A. Smith 7 with Bahmanābād) formed the two towns of the islands of the Indus delta.

¹ Sabhāparvan, Chap. 31, 199, etc.; Droṇaparvan, Chap. 119, 14.

² Mbh., XII, 207, 43. 'Uttarāpatha-janmānaḥ kīrtayisyāmi tūn api Yauna Kāmboja Gāndhārāḥ Kirātā Barbaraiḥ saha.'

⁸ Arthaśāstra, Eng. Trsl., p. 86, f.n. 7, 8; p. 90, etc.

⁶ McCrindle's Ptolemy, p. 148.

⁴ C.A.G.I., pp. 692-4. ⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 694-5.

⁷ Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 107.

CHAPTER XXII

THE MURUNDAS

The Murundas were probably a foreign tribe. They are mentioned for the first time by Ptolemy (second century A.D.), under the name Moroundai. Ptolemy's description would place them on the western border of the 'Gangaridai'. They seem to have occupied an extensive territory, probably the whole of N. Bihar on the east of the Ganges, as far as the head of the delta. They had six important cities, all to the east of the Ganges: Boraita, Koryagaza, Kondota, Kelydna, Aganagora and Talarga. These places are difficult to identify, but to Saint-Martin Kelydna appeared to have some relation with the Kālinadī or Kālindī river, and Aganagora with Aghadip (Agradvipa) on the eastern bank of the Ganges, a little below Kātwā (Ptolemy's Ancient India by McCrindle, pp. 215-6). According to Cunningham, the name of the Marundai is still preserved in the country of the Mundas, a hill-tribe scattered over Chota-Nagpur and Central India. He says: 'The name of Munda is found in the Visnupurāna as the appellation of a dynasty of eleven princes who succeeded the Tushāras or Tokhari. In the Vāvuburāna. however, the name is omitted, and we have only Marunda'1 the Sanskrit name for Ptolemy's Marundai). l = Murunda. Cunningham also suggests that the Moroundai of Ptolemy are identical with the Moredes of Pliny who are mentioned in conjunction with the Surari or Savaras. It may, however, be mentioned that the Marundas are referred to in the Vāvuburāna as one of the Mleccha tribes.

Ptolemy also speaks of a city called Morounda as an inland town of the Aioi. The country of the Aioi was probably some region south of the Kerala country, but the city Morounda has not been identified. It is probable, however, that it was a city of the Maroundai = Murundas; and in that case the Moroundai had another settlement in the farthest south.

The Abhidhānacintāmaṇi of Hemacandra (IV, 26) ² identifies the Muruṇḍas with the Lampākas, the Lambatai of Ptolemy. The latter were located near the source of the modern Kabul river in the region around Laghmān, and it, therefore, follows that the Muruṇḍas had a settlement in this region as well.

² Lampākāstu Marundāh syuh.

¹ Cunningham, Ancient Geography of India, Mazumdar's Ed., pp. 581-2.

Among the foreign potentates who came of their own accord to offer allegiance to Samudragupta (fourth century A.D.) were the 'Śaka-Muruṇḍas'¹; while a 'Muruṇḍa-Svāminī' is mentioned in a Central Indian inscription of the sixth century A.D.

¹ According to Dr. Sten Konow, 'muruṇḍa' is the later form of a Śaka word meaning 'lord' or 'master'. The term 'Śaka-Muruṇḍas' possibly stands, therefore, for those Śaka lords or chieftains who were ruling in the regions of Surāṣṭra and Ujjain at the time of Samudragupta. (Cf. Allahabad Pillar Inscription of Samudragupta.)

CHAPTER XXIII

THE ĀRJUNĀYANAS AND THE PRĀRJUNAS

The Allahabad Pillar Inscription of Samudragupta (fourth century A.D.) (i, 22) refers to a host of tribes—Mālavas, Ārjunāyanas, Yaudheyas, Madrakas, Ābhīras, Prārjunas, Sanakānīkas, Kākas, Kharaparikas, and others—that obeyed the imperial commands and paid all kinds of taxes. Research has ascertained that all these tribal states were located along the north-western, western and south-western fringes of the N. Indian kingdom of Samudragupta. The Mālavas, Yaudheyas, Madrakas and Ābhīras are more or less wellknown, but very little is known about the other tribes.

The names of the two tribes, \bar{A} rjunāyanas and Prārjunas, apparently have some connection with the name of the Epic hero, Arjuna, though this is not certain. The Allahabad Pillar Inscription, as we have seen, connects the \bar{A} rjunāyanas with the Yaudheyas, which is significant, inasmuch as the \bar{A} diparvan (95, 76) of the \bar{M} ahābhārata gives the name of one of Yudhisthira's sons as Yaudheya; so that the connection of the Yaudheyas and

Ārjunāyanas appears to be warranted by the Epic.

The author of the *Brhatsamhitā* also connects these two tribes, and locates them both in the northern division of India. Ray Chaudhuri locates the Yaudheyas in the Bharatpur State of Rajputana; and the Ārjunāyanas may have occupied a contiguous position. The Ārjunāyanas are also known from coins, which do not,

however, give any clue to their geographical location.

Vincent Smith 2 places the Prārjunas in the Narasimhapur district of the Central Provinces, but a more plausible location is Narasimhagarh in Central India,3 inasmuch as three other tribes which are coupled with the Prārjunas, the Sanakānikas, Kākas and Kharaparikas, seem to have occupied regions more or less within the bounds of Central India.

¹ Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 458.

² J.R.A.S., 1897, p. 892.

³ I.H.Q., Vol. I, p. 258.

CHAPTER XXIV

THE AMBASTHAS

The Ambasthas 1 as a tribe existed at least as early as the time of the Aitareya Brāhmana, when they were probably settled in the Punjab; and they can be traced up to the present day in parts of Bengal and Bihar, whither they migrated in later times. In the Aitareya Brāhmana (VIII, 21-3), King Āmbasthya (= 'of Ambastha') is mentioned as having been consecrated with the Aindra Mahābhiseka along with nine other kings. The Mahābhārata² mentions the Ambasthas along with the Sivis, Ksudrakas, Mālavas and other north-western tribes. In the Bhīsma (Chap. 20, 10) and Drona (Chap. 110, 14) Parvans, the Ambasthas are referred to as having taken part in the Kuruksetra war, on the side of the Kurus; while in the Karnaparvan,3 Srutāyuh, the valiant Ksatriya, who was killed by Arjuna, is described as a king of the Ambasthas. The Ambasthas were also once defeated by Nakula, the fourth Pandaya, along with the Sivis, Trigarttas and Mālavas 4; and Śrutāyuh was among those who did homage to Yudhisthira after the defeat.5

In the Purāṇas, the Ambaṣṭhas are represented as Āṇava Kṣatriyas, and are said to have originated from Suvrata, son of Uṣ̄nara; they were thus intimately related to the Yaudheyas and the Ṣivis, and were settled on the eastern border of the Punjab. The country is mentioned in the Bārhaspatya Arthaṣāstra, where it is associated with Sind (Kāṣ́mīra-Hūna-Ambaṣṭha-Sindhavaḥ); while the tribe is included in the list derived by Colonel Wilford from the Varāha Samhitā.

The Purāṇas seem to represent the Ambaṣṭhas as Kṣatriyas, descended as they were from Uśīnara; and, as we have seen, the Mahābhārata refers to their King Śrutāyuḥ as 'the best of Kṣatriyas'. But the evidence of Smṛṭi literature seems to point to their mixed origin. According to the Gautama-Dharmasūtra (IV, 16), children born of wives of the next, second or third lower castes become

¹ According to Goldstücker, the older denomination of the tribe was probably Āmbaṣṭha, not Ambaṣṭha.

² II, 52, 14-15. ⁸ Chap. 5, 18.

⁴ Sabhāparvan, Chap. 32, 7.
⁵ Ibid., Chap. 52, 14-15.
⁶ Pargiter, Ancient Indian Historical Tradition, p. 109.

⁷ Ibid., p. 264.
8 Ed. F. W. Thomas, p. 21.
9 Asiatic Researches, Vol. VIII, pp. 344, 346.

Sabarnas, Ambaṣṭhas, Ugras, Niṣādhas, Dauṣyantas or Pāraśaras. The Ambaṣṭhas would thus be descendants of Brāhmaṇas by Kṣatriya, Vaiśya or Śūdra wives. In the Ambaṭṭha Sutta,¹ an Ambaṭṭha (= Ambaṣṭha) is called a Brāhmaṇa; but, according to the Jātakas,² the Ambaṣṭhas were farmers, while Manu describes them as a people who practised the art of healing.³ S. N. Mazumdar thinks⁴ that 'they were a tribe of Brahma Kṣatriyas' (i.e. Brahmins by descent but warriors by profession); while Ray Chaudhuri⁵ is of the opinion that they were a 'tribe who were at first mainly a fighting race, but some of whom took to other occupations, viz. those of priests, farmers, and, according to the Smṛti writers, physicians'.

The Ambaṣṭhas are the same as the Abastanoi (Arrian), Sambastai (Diodoros), Sabarcae (Curtius) or Sabagrae (Orosius) of Alexander's historians.⁶ In Alexander's time the tribe was settled on the lower Akesines (Asiknī), and had a democratic government, and an army consisting of 60,000 foot, 60,000 cavalry and 500 chariots.⁷ The Ambaṣṭhas are referred to by Ptolemy as Ambastai, a tribe which is described as settled in the east of the country of the Paropanisadai,—Paropanisadai being 'a collective name for the tribes that were located along the southern and eastern sides of the Hindukush'.⁸ Lassen ⁹ thinks that the Ambastai may have been connected in some way with the Ambastai, another tribe mentioned by Ptolemy as dwelling 'along the country of the Bettigoi' and the mountain range of the same name (i.e. southern portion of the Western Ghats).

The Ambaṣṭhas seem to have migrated in later times to some place near the Mekala hill which is the source of the Narmadā (see Mekala chapter). In the Kūrmavibhāga of the Bṛhatsaṃhitā (XIV, 7) they are associated with the Mekalas who dwelt on the Mekala hill; and the mention of Mekhalāmuṣṭa (which is in all probability a misreading for Mekalāmbaṣṭha) in the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa (LVIII, 14) would seem to prove that the two were neighbouring tribes. The tribe seems to have migrated eastwards as well, however, for even today a class of Kāyasthas known as Ambaṣṭha Kāyasthas can be traced in Bihar; while the Vaidyas of Bengal claim to be designated as Ambaṣṭhas.¹⁰

Dīgha, I, p. 88; Dialogues of the Buddha, I, p. 109.
 Jātaka, IV, No. 363.
 Manu, X, 47: 'Ambaṣṭhānām cikitsitām'.

⁴ C.A.G.I., notes, p. 670.
⁵ P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., p. 207.
⁶ McCrindle's Invasion of Alexander, pp. 292ff.
⁷ Ibid., p. 252.

⁸ McCrindle, Ancient India as described by Ptolemy, Majumdar's Ed., pp. 311-12.

Indische Alterthumskunde, pp. 159, 161.
 They are described as such in Bharata Mallika's commentary on the Bhattikāvya.

CHAPTER XXV

THE NIŞĀDAS

The Nisādas are referred to for the first time in the later Samhitās and the Brāhmanas.¹ The word Nisāda 'seems to denote not so much a particular tribe, but to be the general term for the non-Arvan tribes who were not under Arvan control, as the Sūdras were ...' (Vedic Index, Vol. I, p. 453). This is supported by the evidence supplied by Aupamānyava who distinguishes the Nisādas from the other four varņas or 'colours' (castes). The word Nisada (Nisāda) of the Vājasaneyī Samhitā (XVI, 27) is explained by the commentator Mahīdhara to mean a Bhīl or Bhilla, a tribe that still exists in the hills of Central India and the Vindhyan tracts. Macdonell and Keith point out that 'a village of the Nisadas is mentioned in the Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra (VIII, 2, 8), and a Nisāda Sthapati, a leader of some kind of craft, is referred to in the Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra (1, 1, 12; Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 13) and in a Brāhmana cited by the scholiast on that passage'.3 ing to Weber, 4 the Nisādas were settled aborigines. In the opinion of the authors of the Vedic Index, this view is supported 'by the fact that the ritual of the Viśvajit Sacrifice (Kausītaki B., XXV, 15; Lāt. S.S., VIII, 2, 8; Pañ. B., XVI, 6, 8, etc.) requires a temporary residence with the Nisādas; for the Nisādas who would permit an Aryan to reside temporarily amongst them must have been partially amenable to Aryan influence. But the name might easily be applied to the whole body of aborigines outside the Aryan organisation' (Vedic Index, Vol. I, p. 454).5 The Law-giver, Manu, however, explains the origin of the Nisadas as 'the offspring of a Brahmana father and a Sūdra mother'. In his chapter on Mixed Castes, Manu says that the son of a Nisāda by a Śūdra female becomes a Pulkasa by caste, but the son of a Sūdra by a Nisāda female is declared to be a Kukkutaka.7 The social duty enjoined on the Nisādas was to kill

Yāska's Nirukta, III, 8.
 Indische Studien, 9, 340. Cf. 10, 13, 16.

⁸ Vedic Index, I, p. 454.

¹ Taittirīya S., IV, 5, 4, 2; Kāṭhaka S., XVII, 13; Maitrāyanī S., II, 9, 5; Vājasaneyī S., XVI, 27; Aitareya B., VIII, 11; Pañcaviṃśa B., XVI, 6, 8, etc.

⁵ Von Schræder seeks to identify (*Indiens Literatur und Cultur*, p. 366) the Niṣādas with the Nysæana of Greek geographers. This, however, is doubtful. In this connection, see also 'Indo-Aryan Races' by Ramaprasad Chanda who says that the Niṣādas were a non-Aryan race.

⁶ Manu, X, 8; Muir's Sanskrit Texts, I, p. 481.

and provide fish for consumption by the people. According to the Pāli texts as well, they were wild hunters and fishermen. That they were a tribe 'of rude culture or aboriginal stock' (A.I.H.T., p. 290) and outside the Aryan organisation is also attested by the $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana$ story of Guha, king of the Niṣādas who are described as a wild band.

During the period represented by Epic and Paurāṇic traditions the Niṣādas seem to have had their habitat among the mountains that form the boundary of Jhalwar and Khandesh in the Vindhya and Satpura ranges.⁴ This is proved by a reference in the *Mahābhārata* ⁵ to a Niṣāda *rāṣṭra* in the region of the Sarasvatī and the Western Vindhyas, not very far from Pāriyātra or Pāripātra.⁶ The *Mahābhārata* seems to connect the Niṣādas with the Vatsas and Bhargas or Bhaggas:

'Vatsabhūmiñca Kaunteyo vijigye balavān balāt Bhargānāmadhipañcaiva Niṣādādhipatim tathā.' 7

The Niṣādas seem also to have had a settlement in the east. The Bṛhatsaṃhitā of Varāhamihira (XIV, 10) seems to recognise a kingdom or 'rāṣṭra' of the Niṣādas in the south-east of the Madhyadeśa. A Niṣāda kingdom whose capital was Śṛṅgaverapura (on the north side of the Ganges opposite Prayāga) is also referred to in the Rāmāyaṇa (II Canto, 50, 33 to Canto, 52, 11); and it is not improbable that this Niṣāda kingdom is identical with the one referred to in the Bṛhatsamhitā.

The first epigraphic mention of the tribe is found in the Junāgadh Rock Inscription of the year 72 of Mahākṣatrapa Rudradāman (i.e. 150 A.D.). Rudradāman is there credited with having conquered the Niṣāda country along with E. and W. Malwa, the ancient Māhiṣmatī region, the district round Dwārkā in Gujrat, Surāṣṭra, Aparānta, Sindhu-Sauvīra and others. Thus the Niṣāda country in the middle of the second century A.D. was under the suzerainty of the Western Ksatrapas.⁸

¹ Manu, X, 48.

² Fick, Die Sociale Gliederung, 12, 160, 206, etc.; cf. Muir's Sans. Texts, 301, 303, 366, n. 164, 403, 481.

Adikāṇḍa, Canto I; Ayodhyā Kāṇḍa, Canto 51.
 Malcolm, Memoirs of Central India, Vol. I, p. 452.

⁵ III, 130, 4. ⁶ Ibid., XII, 135, 3-5. ⁷ II, 30, 10-11.

⁸ The Chitorgarh Inscription of Mokala or Mewad of the Vikrama year 1485

⁽Ep. Ind., Vol. II, pp. 416ff.) states in a general way (verse 46) that Mokala subdued the Angas, Kāmarūpas, Vangas, Niṣādas, Cīnas and Turuṣkas; 'but there can be no doubt that the verse has been put in solely for the sake of poetical ornamentation'.

CHAPTER XXVI

THE NIŞADHAS

The Nisadhas were a different race from the Nisadas with whom they are often confounded; and we may conclude that they belonged to the Aryan fold. According to the Epic and Pauranic tradition, the Nisadhas are said to have sprung from the primeval King Prthu. son of Vena.1 The tribe seems to have derived its name from Nisadha who is described in the Purānas and Bhagavadgītā to have been the son of Atithi, grandson of Kuśa, and father of Nala.² According to the Visnupurāna (IV, Chap. 24, 17), the ten kings of the Mekala country and nine of the Sapta Kośala country are said to have been succeeded by the nine kings of the Nisadhas. while, according to the Vāyupurāna, the kings of the Nisadha country held sway till the end of the days of Manu. They were all descendants of King Nala, and lived in the country of Nisadha (Vāyu P., Chap. 99, 376). This King Nala of the Purānas must be identical with the King Nala whose story is referred to in the Mahābhārata (III).3

But notwithstanding the celebrity of the Niṣadha country as the kingdom of Nala, it is difficult to ascertain exactly where it was situated. It is, perhaps, permissible to conjecture that it was not very far from Vidarbha, the country of Nala's queen, Damayantī. From the directions given by Nala to Damayantī, Wilson thinks 4 that it was near the Vindhyas and Payoṣṇī river, and that it was near the roads leading from it across the Rkṣa mountain to Avanti and the south, as well as to Vidarbha and to Kośala. Lassen places Niṣadha, the kingdom of Nala, along the Satpura hills to the north-west of Berar. Burgess also places it to the south of Malwa.⁵

The Purāṇas locate the Niṣadhas in the upper and lower regions of the Vindhya ranges.⁶ According to the *Mahābhārata*, the capital of the Niṣadhas was Giriprastha (III. 324, 12).

² Kūrma P., 21, 58; Bhagavadgītā, 9, 12, 1; Saura P., 30, 69; Śiva P., Dharma, 61-9; Brahma P., 8, 88.

⁴ Vișnupurăna, Vol. II, pp. 156-90.

¹ Vāyu P., 62, 137–48; Brahmānda P., II, 36, 158–73; Kūrma P., I, 1, 6; Ibid., 14, 12; Šiva P., VII, 56, 30-1; Mbh., XII, 59, 2233-4, etc.

⁸ The Nala story itself seems to have been much older than the *Mahābhārata*, for it is referred to by Sītā in the *Rāmāyaṇa* (Ray Chaudhuri, *Studies in Indian Antiquities*, *Chap. on Interrelation of the two Ēpics*).

⁵ Antiquities of Kathiawar and Kacch, p. 131.

⁶ Brahmāṇḍa P., 49; Vāyu P., 45; Vāmana P., 13, etc.

The Niṣadhas seem to have played a prominent part in the Kurukṣetra war in which they ranged themselves on the side of the Pāṇḍavas, along with the Mekalas, Kośalas, Madras and Daśārṇas.¹ They were at one time defeated by Karṇa.²

¹ Karnaparvan, Chap. 22, 3; Bhīsmaparvan, Chap. 54, 8.

² Karnaparvan, Chap. 8, 19; Dronaparvan, Chap. 4, 8.

CHAPTER XXVII

THE KĀŠĪS

Kāśī was the ancient name of the kingdom of which the chief city was Bārāṇasī, the modern Benares, which is situated 80 miles below Allahabad on the north bank of the Ganges, at the junction between that river and the river Baraṇā.¹ From the joint name of the two streams which bound the city to the north and the south,—the Baraṇā and the Asi,—the Brāhmaṇas derive Varāṇasī or Bārāṇasī.² The Barāṇa or Varaṇā is a considerable rivulet which rises to the north of Allahabad and has a course of about 100 miles; while the Asi is a mere brook. The former is probably identical with the river Varaṇāvatī, the water of which is said in the Atharvaveda (IV, 7, 1) to have had the property of removing poison. We agree with Macdonell and Keith that, though Kāśī is a late word, it is quite possible that the town is older, as the river Varaṇāvatī may be connected with the later Bārāṇasī.³

According to the Jātakas, Bārāṇasī had other names in previous ages, i.e. in previous incarnations of the Buddha: e.g. Surundhana,⁴ Sudassana,⁵ Brahmavaḍḍhana,⁶ Pupphavatī,⁷ Rammanagara ⁸ and Molinī.⁹ In the Chinese versions of Buddhist works, the terms Kāśī and Vārāṇasī are generally given in transcription, but the former term is sometimes translated by Ti-miao, meaning 'reed-sprouts'. Ti-miao may have been intended to translate Kāśī, as supposedly connected with Kāśī,¹⁰ a certain kind of grass. Bārāṇasī is also called Kāśīnagara and Kāśīpura (e.g. Jātaka, V, 54; VI, 165; Dhammapada Comm., 1, 87).

The city proper, as Rhys Davids says, included the land between the Baraṇā and the Asi. 'Its extent including the suburbs, is often stated to have been, at the time when it was the capital of an independent kingdom (that is some time before the rise of Buddhism) 12 leagues or about 85 miles.' ¹¹ In the Jātakas we find the extent

¹ Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 34.

² Cunningham, Ancient Geography of India (S. N. Majumdar), p. 500.

Vedic Index, Vol. I, p. 154.
 Ibid., IV, p. 119; V, p. 177.
 Ibid., IV, p. 119; V, p. 179.
 Ibid., IV, p. 119; V, p. 312.
 Ibid., IV, pp. 119, 26, etc.

⁹ Ibid., IV, p. 15.

¹⁰ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. II, pp. 58-9.

¹¹ Buddhist India, p. 34.

of the city mentioned as 12 vojanas.1 Nowadays, Benares extends four miles along the bank of the river, which here descends to the water with a steep brink. Down this brink are built flights of steps known as ghats, at the foot of which pilgrims bathe and dead bodies are burnt.2

Although the capital of Kāśī (Pāli, Kāśī) is generally given as Bārānasī, it is said that when Aśoka was king of Kāśī, his capital was in Potali3; and another king, Udaya Bhadda, had his seat of government in Surundha.4 It is possible that these cities did not form part of the regular kingdom of Kāśī, but became annexed to it during the reigns of some of the more powerful kings.⁵

The little kingdom of Kāśī, whose extent is given in the Jātaka (V, 41; III, 304, 301) as three hundred leagues, was bordered by Kośala on the north, Magadha on the east, and Vatsa on the west.6 It was a wealthy and prosperous country, having 'an abundance of the seven gems', and the Bhojājānīya Jātaka (J., I, 178) tells us that 'all the kings around coveted the kingdom of Benares'. It often served as a bone of contention between its three powerful neighbours, as we shall see.

Kāśī is mentioned several times in Vedic literature and in The Sānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra⁸ mentions Kāśva, the king the Epics. of Kāśī, and Jala, son of Jātukarnī, who became the king's chaplain. Kāśya was a warrior, as the Brhadāranyaka Upanisad (III, 8, 2) informs us. From the Satapatha Brāhmana (XIII, 5, 4, 19) we learn that Satānīka, son of Satrājita, took the horse of King Kāśya and performed the Govinata Yaiña. Afterwards, the king too performed this sacrifice. The Brhadāranyaka and Kausītakī Upanisads speak of Ajātaśatru, another king of Kāśī; while the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra 10 tells us that Āyu, son of Purūravas, renounced the world and wandered in the countries of Kāśī, Kuru and Pañcāla.

Purūravas is mentioned in the Rāmāyana 11 as king of Kāśī. Mitradeva said to the nymph Urvaśī: 'Go to Purūrava, king of Kāśī. He will be your husband'. In the same kānda (59, 19), Puru, son of Yayāti, is represented as residing in Pratisthāna and ruling over the kingdom of Kāśī. We are told in the Adikānda (13th sarga) that

¹ Jātaka, VI, p. 160; IV, p. 377; Majjhima Nikāya Comm., II, p. 608; B. C. I.aw, India as described in early texts of Buddhism and Jainism, pp. 41 foll.

² Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 14.

⁴ Ibid., IV, pp. 104ff. 3 Jātaka, II, p. 155.

⁵ Malalasekera, Dictionary of Pāli Proper Names, Vol. I, article on 'Kāśī'.

⁶ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 316. ⁷ Anguttara Nikāya, Vol. I, p. 213; Vol. IV, pp. 252, 256, 260; see also Dīgha Nikāya, II, p. 75.

⁸ XVI, 29, 5. 9 Brh. Up., II, 1, 1; Kauś. Up., IV, 1. 10 XVIII, 44. 11 Uttarakānda, 56th sarga, śl. 25.

Vaśiṣṭha asked Sumantra to invite many pious kings, including the king of Benares, together with one thousand Brahmins, Kṣatriyas, Vaiśyas and Śūdras. In the Kiṣkindhyākāṇḍa (40th sarga) we read that Sugrīva sent the monkey king Vinata to Kāśī, among other countries, in quest of Sītā.

Kāśī figures even more prominently in the Mahābhārata. Harvasva, king of Benares, was killed by the relations of king Vitahavya in a battle fought on the land between the Ganges and the Jumna. His son Sudeva was then installed on the throne of Kāśī. Sudeva ruled righteously, but he also was defeated by the Vitahavyas, and his son Divodāsa became king. Divodāsa built the city of Benares which became populated by people of the four castes. city lay between the north bank of the Ganges and the south bank of the river Gomatī. Big markets were opened, and the city seemed likely to prosper, but the Vitahavyas again attacked, and a great war ensued, lasting for a thousand days. Divodasa was defeated, and fled to a forest, taking shelter in the hermitage of the sage Bharadvāja, eldest son of Brhaspati. This sage assured the king that he would perform a sacrifice so that Divodasa might be blessed with a son who would kill thousands of the Vitahavvas. This son was duly born, and was named Pratardana. He studied the Vedas and archery, and was sent in due course to conquer the Vitahavyas. A fierce fight ensued, in which the Vitahavyas were defeated.1 Another passage of the *Mahābhārata* tells us that Divodāsa, the son of Bhīmasena, king of Kāśī, had a son named Pratardana by Mādhavī. daughter of Yayati.2 When Pratardana came to the throne of Kāśī, he established his capital in Benares and acquired great fame by offering his own son in charity to a Brahmin.³

We have yet another version of Divodāsa's life story in the Purāṇas and the *Harivaṇśa*. Saunihotra, a certain king of Kāśī, had a son named Dhanvantarī who studied the Āyurveda with Bharadvāja,⁴ and later became king of Kāśī. He is celebrated as the author of the Āyurveda and killer of all diseases.⁵ Divodāsa was the great-grandson of this Dhanvantarī. It is said that in his time, Benares, owing to a curse, was deserted, and infested by a Rākṣasa named Kṣemaka. Divodāsa left Benares and founded his kingdom on the banks of the river Gomatī.⁶ Once Bhadraśrenya.

¹ Anuśāsanaparvan, Chap. 30, pp. 1899-1900.

² Udyogaparvan, Chap. 117, p. 746.

³ Anusāsanaparvan, Chap. 137, pp. 1995-6.

⁴ Harivaṃśa, Chap. 31.
⁵ Vāyupurāṇa, Chap. 92.
⁶ Harivaṃśa, Chaps. 31-2; cf. Brahmapurāṇa, Chap. 13, śl. 75. Genealogical tables of the family of Divodāsa are given in the Hariv., Chaps. 31-2, Brahmapurāṇa, Chap. 13, and Vāyupurāṇa, Chap. 92.

son of Mahiṣmān ¹ and king of the Yadu dynasty, acquired Benares. His sons were defeated by King Divodāsa who recovered the city, sparing the life of Bhadraśreṇya's youngest son, Durdama. Later, however, this Durdama again took Benares which was then recovered by Pratardana, son of Divodāsa. Elsewhere.² we read that Ālarka Saunati (grandson of Pratardana) re-established the city of Benares, after killing the Rākṣasa Kṣemaka.

We return to the *Mahābhārata* references to Kāśī. A certain king of Kāśī gave his daughter Sārvasenī in marriage to Bharata, son of Duṣmanta (Duṣyanta), king of the Kuru dynasty, and Śakuntalā, daughter of Viśvāmitra.³ Kāśya, another king of Kāśī, had three daughters, Ambā, Ambikā and Ambālikā, who were won by Bhīṣma for his brother Vicitravīrya in a Svayaṃvara.⁴ Suvāhu, a king of Kāśī, was conquered by Bhīṣma.⁵ On the occasion of the marriage ceremony of Abhimanyu, the king of Kāśī and others were invited by Yudhiṣṭhira to a city named Upaplavya near Virāṭa.⁶ The king of Kāśī was an ally of Yudhiṣṭhira, and helped the Pāṇḍavas in the Kurukṣetra war.ⁿ In battle he rode horses decorated with gold and garlands ⁶; Śaivya and he guarded the centre of the Pāṇḍava army with 30,000 chariots.⁶ The king of Kāśī is mentioned as the best archer.¹⁰ Kāśī, Karūṣa and Cedi armies were under the leadership of Dhrsṭaketu.¹¹

The Purāṇas contain several stories about kings of Kāśī. We have mentioned the account of Divodāsa. Another king mentioned in the Vāyupurāṇa 12 is Kāśa who was the son of Dharmavṛddha of the Nahuṣa family. The sons of Kāśa were Kāśara, Rāṣṭra and Dīrghatapas, and Dīrghatapas' son was the learned Dharma. According to the Harivaṃśa (Chap. 29), the sons of Kāśa, a king of the Anenāḥ dynasty, were known as Kāśīs. Dīrghatamas (=Dīrgha-

tapas?) was the eldest son.

Benares, the capital of Kāśī, figures in the story of Kṛṣṇa's quarrel with Puṇḍva. King Puṇḍva, aided by the king of Benares, fought with Kṛṣṇa Vāsudeva who defeated and killed Puṇḍva, and burnt the city of Benares.¹³

According to the Jainas, Pārśvanātha was born in Benares about 817 B.C. His father Aśvasena was the king of Benares, and

³ Adiparvan, Chap. 95, p. 105.

¹ Padmapurāna, Srsti, Chap. 12.

 ⁴ Udyogaparvan, Chaps. 172-94, pp. 791-806.
 5 Sabhāparvan, Chap. 30, pp. 241-2.

<sup>Udyogaparvan, Chap. 72, p. 714.
Bhīsmaparvan, Chap. 50, p. 924.</sup>

¹¹ Udyogaparvan, Chap. 198, p. 807.

¹³ Vișnupurāņa, 5th Āmśa, Chap. 34.

² Vāyupurāņa, Chap. 92.

⁶ Virātaparvan, Chap. 72, śl. 16.

⁸ Dronaparvan, Chap. 22, śl. 38.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, Chap. 25, p. 834.

¹² Chap. 92.

he himself attained perfect knowledge (kevala-jñāna) seated under a certain tree near the city.¹

Kāśī also figures in the stories of Mahāvīra and his disciples.² For example, there lived in Benares a householder named Culanipiyā who was prosperous and had no equal. His wife was called Samā. At a certain time Mahāvīra came and a congregation went out from Benares to hear him preach. Culanipiyā lived in conformity with the teaching which he received from Mahāvīra.³ Among other disciples of Mahāvīra who were connected with Benares were Sūrādeva, a prosperous householder,⁴ Āryarakṣita ⁵ and Jayaghoṣa.⁶ We are told also that the king of Kāśī named Nandana, the seventh Baladeva, son of King Agniśikha, abandoned all pleasures and hewed down his karma like a forest, as it were.⁷

On the night in which Mahāvīra died, the king of Kāśī instituted an illumination, it being a day of fasting (Poṣadha); for he said, 'When the light of intelligence is gone, let us make an illumination of material matter'.8

There is a reference in Kauṭilya's Arthaśāstra to the poisoning of a king of Kāśī by his own queen.

Although, as we have seen, Kāśī and Benares feature fairly prominently in Hindu and Jain sources, it is the Buddhist books, and particularly the Jātakas, which give us fuller information on the subject. In the Purāṇas, Kāśī is mentioned as a janapada or country. In the Pāli canon, however, it is referred to as one of the sixteen 'Mahājanapadas,' and its capital, Bārāṇasī, was one of the four places of pilgrimage for the Buddhists, and was included in the list of great cities suggested by Ānanda as suitable places for the parinibbāna of the Buddha.¹⁰

Although Kāśī was no longer an independent kingdom in the Buddha's day, the memory of its independence seems to have been still fresh, for it is frequently mentioned as such in the Jātakas and elsewhere. To begin with, it is said that Kāśī was once ruled by the Bhāratas one of whom, Dhataraṭṭha, was its king in the time of Reṇu.¹¹ The traditional name of the king of Kāśī was evidently Brahmadatta, and references to kings of that name abound in the Jātakas.

¹ S. Stevenson, Heart of Jainism, pp. 48-9.

² B. C. Law, Mahāvīra: His Life and Teachings, sec. I.

³ Uvāsagadasāo, Vol. II, pp. 90-8. (B.I.S.)

⁴ Ibid., p. 100.
⁵ Heart of Jainism, p. 78.
⁶ Jaina Sūtras, S.B.E., II, pp. 136-7. See also ibid., p. 50, for the story of the Jaina monk Bala, and Bhadrā, daughter of King Kauśalika.

 ⁷ Sūtrakrtānga, Jaina Sūtras, II, p. 87.
 ⁸ Jaina Sūtras, I, p. 266.
 ⁹ Anguttara Nikāya, I, pp. 213, etc.
 ¹⁰ Dīgha Nikāya, II, 146.

¹¹ Ibid., II, 135f. Here (Mahāgovinda Sutta) the foundation of Bārāṇasī is attributed to Mahāgovinda, its first king being Dhataraṭṭha.

Brahmadatta was probably the dynastic name of the kings of Benares; for instance, in the Gangamāla Jātaka (J., III, 452) Udaya, king of Benares, is addressed as Brahmadatta. Elsewhere in the *lātaka* (III, pp. 406ff.), we read that a certain prince Brahmadatta became king of Benares. He married the exquisitely beautiful daughter of the king of Kośala, and made her his chief queen. held a parasol festival, and the whole city was decorated so splendidly as to seem like a city of the gods. The king went around the city in procession, and then mounted his throne on the dais in the palace. The throne was surmounted by a white parasol. Brahmadatta looked down on all the persons who stood in attendance, 'on one side the ministers, on another the Brahmins and householders resplendent in the beauty of varied apparel, on another the townspeople with various gifts in their hands, on another troupes of dancing girls to the number of sixteen thousand, like a gathering of the nymphs of heaven in full apparel', and reflected that all his splendour was due to 'an alms-gift of four portions of gruel given to four paccekabuddhas'.

One King Brahmadatta told the inhabitants of Kāśī that there would be a famine lasting for twelve years, and that only those inhabitants might remain who had provision for that period. Many people died at Benares on account of this famine. One very wealthy person, however, gave alms to a paccekabuddha who granted three boons in return. The almsgiver himself prayed that his granary should always be filled with paddy; his wife prayed that one pot of rice cooked by her would be sufficient for hundreds of thousands of people; and their son prayed that his treasure-house should always be full of wealth.¹

There seem to have been frequent wars between the two kingdoms of Kāśī and Kośala, first one side being victorious, and then the other. We are told,² for instance, that a certain Brahmadatta was a wealthy king of Benares. He was rich in treasure, revenue, troops and vehicles. The king of Kośala at that time, named Dīghīti, was not so wealthy as he was. Brahmadatta waged war against Dīghīti, defeated him, and took possession of his treasuries and storehouses. The king of Kośala and his consort escaped, went to Benares, and lived there in disguise in a potter's house. The queen bore a son, Dīghāyu (or Dīghāvu), who was sent away for safety. The king of Kāśī some time afterwards learnt that the king and queen of Kośala were dwelling in his kingdom, and they were captured, and were being led to the place of execution when Dīghāyu, who was on a

¹ Divyāvadāna, 132ff.

² Vinaya, I, 343ff.; Dhammapada Comm., I, 56ff.; Jātaka, III, 211ff., 487.

visit to the city, saw them. Dīghīti gave out his dying advice to his son: 'Look not too far nor too near.' Understanding this advice, Dīghāyu entered the service of the king of Kāśī. One day the king ascended a chariot driven by Dīghāyu. Travelling at high speed, he left the royal retinue far behind. The king became tired, stopped the chariot, and fell asleep. Dīghāyu thought of killing him, but remembering his father's advice he desisted. When Brahmadatta awoke, however, Dīghāyu revealed his identity, and promised the king his life. His father's kingdom was restored to him, and he married Brahmadatta's daughter.

On another occasion, the king of Benares attacked the kingdom of Kośala and took its king prisoner. He set up royal officials as governors in the conquered country, and himself having collected all their available treasure, returned with his spoils to Benares. king of Kośala had a son named Chatta who fled when his father was taken prisoner, and went to Taxila to complete his education. On his way back from Taxila, Chatta came to a wood where dwelt five hundred ascetics. Chatta joined them, and eventually became their leader. He came to Benares with the ascetics, and spent a night in the king's garden. The next morning the ascetics, in their quest for alms, came to the door of the palace. The king was charmed with their deportment, and particularly with Chatta, who answered all his questions to his satisfaction; and he asked the ascetics to stay in his garden. Chatta knew a spell whereby he could bring to light buried treasure. He repeated this spell, and discovered that the treasure which had belonged to his father was buried in that very garden. He then told the ascetics that he was the son of the king of Kośala, and they agreed to help him. Chatta removed the treasure which was taken to Śrāvastī by the ascetics. He then had all the king's officers seized, recovered his kingdom, made the city invincible against invasion, and took up his residence there.1

In the *Mahāsīlava Jātaka* we read that the kingdom of Benares was once seized by the king of Kośala who buried the king of Kāśī (Mahāsīlava) and his soldiers alive, up to the neck. The king of Kāśī managed to get out of the pit, and to rescue his soldiers; and by the magic power of two yakṣas who happened to be there disputing over a corpse, he secured his sword of state, and went to the usurper's bedside at dead of night and frightened him. On being told the story of the king of Kāśī's escape, the usurper praised him, begged his pardon, and on the morrow gave back his kingdom, and himself with his troops and elephants returned to his own country.²

¹ Jātaka, III, pp. 115ff.

² Ibid., I, pp. 262 et seq.; see also I, 409; Udāna Comm., 123.

In the Asātarūpa Jātaka, we read that the kingdom of Benares was once seized by the king of Kośala who marched with a great force against Benares, killed the king, and carried off his queen. But the king's son escaped, and later collected a mighty force and came to Benares. He pitched his camp close to the city, and sent a message to the king of Kośala, demanding that he should surrender the kingdom or else give battle. The king informed him that he would give battle. But the young prince's mother sent word to her son advising him not to fight, but to blockade the city on every side, so that the citizens would be worn out for want of food and water. The prince acted on this advice, and the citizens were famished and on the seventh day they beheaded their king and brought his head to the prince. Thus the prince succeeded in regaining his paternal kingdom. On another occasion the kingdom of Benares was seized by a king of Savatthi (Śravasti) named Vanka. but was soon restored.2

There seems to have been friendly intercourse between the chieftains of Benares and the kings of Magadha, as instanced by the fact that King Bimbisāra sent his own physician Jīvaka to attend the son of the Treasurer of Benares, when the young man had twisted his internal organs through practising acrobatics.³

The Cambridge History of India (p. 316) informs us that at different periods Kāśī came under the sway of the three successive suzerain powers of N. India— the Purus of Vatsa, the Ikṣvākus of Kośala and the kings of Magadha; but it seems to have enjoyed independent power between the decline of Vatsa and the rise of Kośala, when King Brahmadatta conquered Kośala, possibly about a century and a half before the Buddha's time.

As we have seen, in the early days, Kāśī and Kośala are represented as two independent countries whose kings fought with each other. Kāśī and Kośala are frequently mentioned together in literature (e.g. Anguttara Nikāya, V, 59). In the Buddha's time, Kośala was already the paramount power in India. We have seen how several successful invasions of Kāśī had been carried out by the kings of Kośala. Kāśī's absorption into Kośala was an accomplished fact before the accession of Pasenadi, for Pasenadi's father Mahākośala gave his daughter a village of Kāśī (Kāsigāma) as 'bath money', on the occasion of her marriage with King Bimbisāra of Magadha.⁵

Jātaka, I, p. 409.
 Ibid., III, pp. 168-9.

³ Vinaya Texts, Pt. II, pp. 184-5 (Mahāvagga, VIII, 1).

⁴ D. R. Bhandarkar, Car. Lec., 1918, p. 55. ⁵ Jātaka, IV, 342; II, 403.

After Bimbisāra's death, Pasenadi withdrew the gift from Ajātaśatru, and this led to a war between Kośala and Magadha. Pasenadi was defeated in three campaigns, but in another battle he avenged his defeat, and took possession of Kāśī. However, Pasenadi treated Ajātaśatru generously, giving him his daughter in marriage, and even bestowing the disputed village on her as a wedding gift.¹ In the Dīgha Nikāya we read that Pasenadi, king of Kāśī, used to collect taxes from the inhabitants of these two countries. He used to share the income with his subordinates.² The Mahāvagga,³ however, mentions a Kāsika-rājā (king of Kāśī) who sent a robe to Jīvaka. Buddhaghoṣa says ⁴ that this was a brother of Pasenadi and son of the same father. He was probably a sub-king of Pasenadi.⁵ Later, when Ajātaśatru succeeded in establishing his sway over Kośala, Kāśī too was included in his dominions (see Chapter on Kośala).

The Sumangalavilāsinī,6 referring to the more ancient period of Kāśī, mentions a certain Rāma, king of Kāśī, who had an attack of leprosy, in consequence of which he became distasteful to the members of his harem, and the dancing girls. Being much distressed, he left his kingdom in charge of his eldest son, went to a forest, and was soon cured of the disease by living on leaves and fruits. His body now appeared like gold. He dwelt in a tree-hole, and later married the daughter of King Okkāka (Skt. Ikṣvāku). Thirty-two sons were born to him; and these sons afterwards built the city named Kola, and became known as Koliyas. There were intermarriages between the Koliyas and the Śākyas (other descendants of Okkāka) down to the time of the Buddha Gautama.

The names of several other kings of Benares are mentioned in the Jātakas, among them being those of Aṅga, Uggasena, Udaya, Dhanañ-jaya, Vissasena, Kalābu (Jātaka, III, 39), and Saṃyama. The Suttanipāta Commentary on the Khaggavisāṇa Sutta contains the names of several kings of Benares who renounced the world and became paccekabuddhas. The Ceylon Chronicles mention the names of others who reigned in Benares, e.g. Duppasaha and sixty of his descendants; Aśoka, son of Samankara, and 84,000 of his descendants; also sixteen kings, ancestors of Okkāka. Sometimes the king is referred to merely as Kāśī-rājā. In the Jātaka (III, p. 28) we are told that a king of Benares used to learn Vedic hymns from his family priest (purohita).

¹ Samyutta Nikāya, I, pp. 82-5.

² I, pp. 228-9.

³ Vin., I, 281.
⁴ Vinaya Texts, II, 195, n. 2.
⁵ Malalasekera, Dictionary of Pāli Proper Names, s.v. Kāšī.

⁶ Sumangalavilāsinī, Pt. I, pp. 260-2; vide also chapter on Koliyas.
7 Mahāvamsa Tīkā, 127, 129, 130.

The king of Benares at the time of the Buddha Kassapa is said to have been Kikī. When Kassapa Buddha arrived in Benares, the king, having listened to his sermons, entertained the Buddha and his monks at the palace.¹ One of Kikī's daughters was Uracchadā, who attained arahatship at the age of sixteen. He had seven other daughters, and a son Pathavindhara, who succeeded him (Divyāvadāna; 22, Sujāta). During the life of the Buddha Kassapa, Kikī waited on him with many kinds of gifts,² and at his death built one of the four gates outside the Buddha's cetiya. This gate was a league in width.³ In the Sanskrit books he is called Kṛkī,⁴ and is mentioned as owning a palace called Kokanada.

From the Jātakas we learn that Benares was ruled with justice and equity. The ministers of the king were just; no false suit was brought to court, and sometimes true cases were so scanty that ministers had to remain idle for lack of litigants. The king of Benares was always on the alert to know his own faults. Once a certain king of Benares went outside the city to find out whether there was anyone who might know anything against him. The king of Kośala was out on a similar mission, and the two kings met at a place where the road was too narrow for two carriages to pass. Each of the drivers spoke of the virtues of his king, and finally the king of Kośala and his driver gave place to the king of Benares.⁵

There was a belief current amongst the people of Benares that when kings rule with justice and equity, when they reign peacefully, all things retain their respective nature and character; but that when kings rule with injustice and inequity, when their reign becomes one of terror and tyranny, all things lose their respective nature. Oil, honey, molasses and the like, and even the wild fruits lose their sweetness and flavour.⁶

In spite of good government, the country was not entirely free from crime. For instance, a physician named Cakkhupāla in anger gave one of his women patients, who had tried to cheat him out of his promised reward for curing her, a drug which made her blind. There were also instances of highway robbery and house-breaking. In the Satapatta Jātaka (Jātaka, II, pp. 387-8) we read that the Bodhisattva in a former life gathered 500 robbers together and became their chief, living by highway robbery and house-breaking.

¹ Majjhima Nikāya, II, pp. 49ff.

<sup>Suitanipāta Comm., I, 281, 283.
E.g. Mahāvastu (ed. Senart), I, 325; Divyāvadāna, 22f.; Avadāna Śataka, I, 338, etc.</sup>

Jētaka, II, pp. 1-5.
 Ibid., III, pp. 110-11.

⁷ Dhammapada Comm., Vol. I, p. 20.

Kāśī was evidently a great centre of trade and industry, and a most populous and prosperous country. Frequent mention is made of caravans leaving Kāśī to travel for trade. One highway went through Kāśī to Rājagrha,¹ and another to Śrāvastī²; and there was also direct trade between Kāśī and Takṣaśīlā.³ We read of a trader of Benares who went with 500 carts to a frontier country and bought sandal wood⁴; and of another trader who was going to Śrāvastī with five hundred carts full of red cloth, but could not cross the river as it was in flood, and had to stay on the near side to sell his goods.⁵ The merchants of Benares used to go about hawking goods, which were carried by donkeys.⁶ Horse dealers from northern districts used to bring horses to Benares for sale.⁶ Sindh horses were available in Benares, and were used as the royal horses of ceremony.⁶ In Benares, too, there were skilled elephant trainers,⁶ and corn merchants.¹⁰

In Benares fine cloths widely known as Kāśī cloths were manufactured, and Kāśī robes were most highly esteemed as gifts, each robe being valued at one hundred thousand.¹¹ Mention is also made of the perfumes of Kāśī [Kāsi-vilepana—Jātaka, I, 355; and Kāsi-candana—Aṅguttara Nikāya, III, 391; Udāna Comm. (P.T.S.), 332].

At Benares there was a rich banker named Mahādhanasetthi. His parents taught him dancing and music, and he married the daughter of another rich banker, and of similar education. Mahādhana became addicted to drink and gambling, with the result that he lost his own wealth as well as his wife's, being finally reduced to begging for alms. In general, however, the merchants of Benares must have been highly respected, for we read in the *Divyāvadāna* (p. 100) that after the death of Priyasena, the chief merchant, Brahmadatta, king of Kāśī, appointed Supriya chief merchant of the royal court; and after Brahmadatta's death, the ministers anointed Supriya king (p. 121).

There was in Benares a market known as the ivory workers' bazar, where ivory articles were sold. There were also stone cutters or experts in working stone-quarrying and shaping stones. 4

Vinaya, I, 212.
 Dhammapada Comm., III, 445.
 Suttanipāta Comm., Vol. II, pp. 523ff.
 Dhammapada Comm., Vol. III, p. 429.
 Jātaka, II, p. 109; Dhammapada Comm., Vol. I, p. 123.
 Jātaka, II, p. 287.
 Ibid., II, p. 221.
 Ibid., III, p. 198.

¹¹ Ibid., V, p. 377; Lalitavistara (Lefmann), p. 215. Buddhist Suttas, S.B.E., XI, p. 92; Jātaka, VI, 151, 450.

Dhammapada Comm., Vol. III, p. 429.
 Jātaka, II, p. 197.
 Ibid., I, p. 478.

Five hundred carpenters lived in a village in Kāśī. There was in Benares a great carpenter-quarter containing a thousand families. These carpenters avowed publicly that they could make a bed or a chair or a house; but when they took a large advance from the people, they proved themselves to be liars. They were then so much harassed by their customers that they had to leave the town.² A certain carpenter of Benares prepared mechanical wooden birds (airships), by means of which he conquered a tract of land in the Himalayas. His capital was known as Katthavāhananagara. He sent valuable presents to the king of Benares who in return sent him the news of the advent of the Buddha Kassapa in Benares.³

In Benares, there was a village of hunters on the banks of the river (=Ganges), and another on the farther side. Five hundred families dwelt in each.4 The Nesāda of the Māra Jātaka (II, 36), who was ordered by the king to catch a golden peacock, practised the profession of a hunter in a Nesāda village near Benares.

There were snake-charmers in Benares (Jātaka, III, p. 198). An elephant festival was held in the city, in which Brahmins had to chant elephant lore (Hastisūtram). In this festival five score elephants with pure white tusks were used.⁵ There was also a timehonoured drinking festival, at which people used to drink strong liquor and quarrel with one another. Sometimes their legs and arms were broken, crowns were cracked, and ears were torn off.6

From the Jatakas it is evident that the people of Benares were charitable, especially to hermits.7 Visayha, a great merchant of Benares, had alms-halls built at the four city-gates, besides one in the heart of the city and one at the door of his own house. He distributed alms at these six points, and everyday 600,000 men came there to beg. 8 In the Lalitavistara there is a reference to Ratnacūda (Ratnaśikhī), a charitable king of Kāśī.9

Enthusiastic young men of Benares used to go to Taxila, for their education. 10 We read in the Dhammapada Commentary (I, 251ff.) how a certain king of Benares paid 1,000 kahāpanas to a young Brahmin for teaching him a mantra (spell) which afterwards proved the means of saving his life, when his barber and senapati (general) plotted to kill him; and how another king of Benares paid

¹ Jātaka, II, p. 18.

² *Ibid.*, IV, p. 159.

⁸ Suttanipāta Comm., II, pp. 575ff. ⁵ *Ibid.*, II, p. 48.

⁴ Jātaka, VI, p. 71. 6 Ibid., IV, p. 115.

<sup>Ibid., I, p. 361; p. 239 (Fausböll).
Ibid., III, p. 129. Cf. the almost identical stories of Sankha, Jātaka, IV, p. 15;</sup> Jātaka, I, p. 262; and of Prince Jarāsandha, Jātaka, IV, p. 176.

⁹ Lefmann, p. 171.

¹⁰ Dhammapada Comm., I, pp. 250-51; Jātaka, II, 47.

1,000 kahāpaṇas to a young Brahmin for a spell which enabled him to read people's evil thoughts, so that he could learn whether any of his subjects spoke ill of him. There seem to have been educational institutions at Benares also, some of which were even older than those of Taxila (Khuddakapāṭha Comm., 198). We find for instance that Saṅkha, a Brahmin of Taxila, sent his son Susīma to Benares to study.¹

A knowledge of spells formed an important part of a young man's education in the days when Kāśī was an independent kingdom; and it is natural that we should read of numerous superstitions which were current in Benares. We read in the Jātakas of the skill of the Brahmins of Benares in 'Lakkhaṇamantam', or charms for discovering the auspicious signs of various creatures.² In Benares there was a Brahmin who professed to be able to tell whether the swords (of warriors) were lucky or not.³ There was a superstitious belief current in Kāśī, as in other countries, that it was an evil omen if the wind touching the body of a caṇḍāla (outcaste) touched that of a person of another caste.⁴ Slaughter of deer, swine and other animals for offerings to goblins was in vogue in Benares.⁵

Besides those already referred to, names of places mentioned in literature as belonging to Kāśī are Vāsabhagāma, Macchikāsaṇḍa, Kīṭāgiri and Dhanapālagāma.⁶ The place which was most intimately associated with the several visits that the Buddha paid to Benares was Isipatana Migadāva, a famous Deer Park near the city. It was eighteen leagues from Uruvelā, and it was there that the Buddha preached his first sermon after his enlightenment, to his friends the Pañcavaggiya monks.⁷ There also the Buddha spent his first rainy season; and he mentioned Isipatana as one of the four places of pilgrimage which his devout followers should visit.⁸ 'Isipatana was so called because sages, on their way through the air (from the Himalayas) alight here or start from here on their aerial flight'.⁹ Several other incidents connected with the Buddha, besides the preaching of his first sermon, are mentioned in the texts as having taken place in Isipatana.¹⁰

¹ Dhammapada Comm., III, 445.
² Jātaka, IV, p. 335.
³ Ibid., I, p. 455.
⁴ Ibid., III, p. 233.
⁵ Ibid., IV, p. 115.

 ⁶ B. C. Law, India as described in early texts of Buddhism and Jainism, p. 42.
 ⁷ Dīgha Nikāya, III, p. 141, Majjhima Nikāya, I, pp. 170ff.; cf. Saṃyutta Nikāya,
 V. pp. 420ff.; Kathāvatthu, pp. 97, 559.

⁸ See Buddhavamsa Comm., p. 3; Dīgha Nikāya, II, p. 141.
9 Malalasekera, Dictionary of Pāli Proper Names, s.v. Isipatana.

¹⁰ E.g. Vinaya Piṭaka (ed. Oldenberg), I, p. 15f.; Dīpavaṃsa, pp. 119-20; Therīgāthā Comm., p. 220; Aṅguttara Nikāya, I, pp. 110ff., 279-80; III, pp. 392ff., 399ff.; Saṃyutta Nikāya, I, pp. 105-6; V, pp. 406-8.

Some of the most eminent members of the Buddhist community seem to have resided at Isipatana from time to time; among recorded conversations at Isipatana are several between Sāriputta and Mahākoṭṭhita,¹ and one between Mahākoṭṭhita and Citta-Hatthisāriputta.²

According to the *Mahāvaṃsa*, there was a large community of monks at Isipatana in the second century B.C. For we are told that at the foundation ceremony of the Mahā Thūpa in Anurādhapura, twelve thousand monks from Isipatana were present. Isipatana was still a monastic centre in Hsüan-Tsang's time, for he found 1,500 monks studying the Hīnayāna there. He quotes the *Nigrodhamiga Jātaka* (*Jāt.*, I, 145ff.) to account for the origin of the Migadāya or Deer Park at Isipatana. According to him, the Deer Park was the forest which was given by the king of Benares for the deer to wander in it unmolested.

Isipatana is identified with the modern Sāranāth, six miles from Benares. Cunningham ⁵ found the Migadāya represented by a fine wood, covering an area of about half a mile, extending from the great tomb of Dhamek on the north to the Chaukundi mound on the south.

Near Benares, too, was a grove of seven sirīsaka-trees where the Buddha preached to the Nāga-king Erakapatta 6; and also the Khemiyambavana where Udena met Ghoṭamukha. 7 On the other side of the river was Vāsabhagāma, and beyond that another village called Cundaṭṭhila. 8 The Buddha is several times spoken of as staying in Benares, where he preached several sermons, 9 and converted many people, including Yasa, whose home was in Benares, and his friends Vimala, Subāhu, Puṇṇaji and Gavampati, all members of eminent families. 11

In the Buddha's time, the *Santhāgārasāla* (Council-Hall) of Benares was no longer being used so much for the transaction of public business as for public discussion on religious and philosophical

¹ Samyutta Nikāya, II, pp. 112–14; III, pp. 167–9, 173–7; IV, pp. 384–6.

² Anguttara Nikāya, III, p. 392f. ³ Mahāvaṃsa, XXIX, p. 31.

⁴ Beal, Records of the Western World, II, pp. 45ff.

⁵ Arch. Reports, I, p. 107.

 ⁶ Dhammapada Comm., III, p. 230.
 ⁷ Majjhima Nikāya, II, p. 157.

⁸ Petavatthu Comm., p. 168; B. C. Law, India as described in early texts of Buddhism and Jainism, p. 42; see also Barua and Sinha, Barhut Inscriptions.

⁹ E.g. Anguttara Nikāya, I, pp. 110f., 279f.; III, pp. 392f., 399f.; Samyutta Nikāya, I, p. 105; V, p. 406; Vinaya Piṭaka, I, pp. 189, 216f., 289; Samantapāsādikā (P.T.S.), I, p. 201.

¹⁰ Vinaya Pitaka, I, p. 15.

questions. Ascetics who came to the city found lodging for the night in the Potters' Hall. 2

Many venerable Buddhist monks, e.g. Sāriputta, Mahāmoggallāna, Mahākaccāna, Mahākoṭṭhita, Mahācunda, Anuruddha, Revata, Upāli, Ānanda and Rāhula journeyed through the country of Kāśī.³ The Buddha's converts in Benares included Aḍḍhakāsī, the daughter of a rich banker of Kāśī, who became a courtesan, whose fee was fixed by the king at half of the daily income of Kāśī (this explains her name, Aḍḍhakāsī). After her conversion by the Buddha, Aḍḍhakāsī is said to have become an arahat.⁴ For other references to nuns who were connected with Kāśī, see, e.g. *Therīgāthā Comm.*, p. 106 and pp. 151-2. Elsewhere in the same work (pp. 71-2) it is said that Bhaddā Kapilānī became the chief queen of the king of Benares on account of her approving the offering of cloth to the Buddha in a previous birth.

¹ E.g. Jātaka, IV, p. 74.

² E.g. Dhammapada Comm., I, p. 39.

⁸ Vinaya Texts, Pt. II, pp. 359-60.

⁴ Therīgāthā Comm., pp. 30-1. See also Vinaya Texts, III, p. 360, n. 3; II, pp. 195-6, n. 3.

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE KOŠALAS

In the earliest Vedic literature, no mention is made of Kośala as the name of a people. It is only in some of the later Vedic works. like the Śatapatha Brāhmana and the Kalpasūtras, that we find Kośala referred to as a country. Kośala is also mentioned in the Pāli Buddhist literature as one of the sixteen great countries (Mahājanapadas) of Jambudīpa or India. Pānini, too, mentions Kośala in one of his Sūtras.² In the Atthasālinī,³ mention is made of Kośala as one of the great Ksatriva tribes in Buddha's time.4

Kośala lay to the east of the Kurus and Pañcālas, and to the west of the Videhas, from whom it was separated by the river Sadānīrā, probably the great Gandak.⁵ In the Cambridge History of India, we read that the northern frontier of Kośala must have been in the hills in what is now Nepal; its southern boundary was the Ganges; and its eastern boundary was the eastern limit of the Śākya territory. According to Macdonell and Keith, Kośala lay to the north-east of the Ganges, and corresponds roughly to the modern Oudh.7 Rhys Davids states that the Kośalas were the ruling clan in the kingdom whose capital was Sāvatthī (Śrāvastī), in what is now Nepal, seventy miles north-west of the modern Gorakhpur. He thinks that it included Benares and Sāketa, and probably had the Ganges for its southern, the Gandak for its eastern, and the mountains for its northern boundary.8

In the Cambridge History of India, we read that the Kośalans were almost certainly of the Aryan race, in the main at least. belonged to the solar family, and were supposed to have derived directly from Manu through Iksvāku. A family of princes bearing this name is known from Vedic literature, and it is quite possible

¹ Anguttara Nikāya, Vol. I, p. 213; IV, pp. 252, 256, 260; cf. Viṣṇupurāṇa, Chap. IV, Amsa 4.

² VI, I, I7.

⁸ Khuddakapātha Comm., pp. 110-11; cf. Papañcasūdanī (P.T.S.), Vol. I, pp. 59-60. Kośala is mentioned as a beautiful place, attractive, pleasant, full of good things, and prosperous as the home of the gods.

⁴ Atthasālinī (P.T.S.), p. 305. ⁵ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 308; cf. ibid., p. 117, and Rapson, Ancient India, p. 164; also Satapatha Brāhmaņa, 1, 4, 11.

⁶ Vol. I, p. 178. 8 Buddhist India, p. 25.

⁷ Vedic Index, Vol. I, p. 190.

⁹ Vol. I, p. 190.

that the solar dynasties of Kośala and other kingdoms to the east of the middle country were descended from this family. If so, Ikṣvāku must be regarded as an eponymous ancestor; and as his superhuman origin had to be explained, a myth founded on a farfetched etymology of his name was invented, viz. that he was so called because he was born from the sneeze of Manu.¹ Vedic literature points out that the Ikṣvākus were originally a branch of the Purus.² Kośala is known to the Buddhists as the land of the Kośala princes,³ tracing their descent from Ikṣvāku. The descent of those ruling princes of Kośala from Ikṣvāku is borne out by the genealogies in the Rāmāyaṇa as well as the Purāṇas.⁴ Buddhaghoṣa narrates an anecdote giving a fanciful origin of the name of Kośala, from 'kuśala' (well, healthy, in good condition).⁵

In the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa (I, 4, 11), the Kośala-Videhas appear as coming later than the Kuru-Pañcālas under the influence of Brahmanism. In the same work, the Kauśalya or Kośala king, Para-ātnāra Hiraṇyanābha, is described as having performed the great Aśvamedha or horse sacrifice. Hiraṇyanābha Kauśalya and Aśvalāyana Kauśalya figure in the Praśna Upaniṣad (I, I) as two contemporary seekers of truth belonging to Kośala. The connection between Hiraṇyanābha of the Praśna and Para-āṭnāra Hiraṇyanābha of the Satapatha is uncertain. A passage in the Sānkhyāyana Śrauta Sūtra (XVI, 9, 13) shows the connection of Kośala with Kāśī and Videha.

It is in the Epic period that Kośala emerges into importance. The scene of action of the $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana$ is in Kośala, the princes of which country carried Aryan civilisation to the south as far as the island of Ceylon. Pargiter observes that it is remarkable that in the $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana$ the friendliest relations of Kośala were with the eastern kingdoms of Videha, Anga and Magadha, the Punjab kingdoms of Kekaya, Sindhu and Sauvīra, the western kingdom of Surāṣṭra, and the Dākṣiṇātya kings, for these are especially named among the monarchs who were invited to Daśaratha's sacrifice, and no mention is made of any of the kings of the middle region of N. India except Kāśī.⁸ Pargiter is of the opinion that it was under

¹ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 305.

<sup>Ibid., p. 308.
Ray Chaudhuri's Political History, 4th Ed., p. 86.</sup>

⁵ Sumangalavilāsinī, I, 239. ⁶ XIII, 5, 4, 4.

⁷ In the dynastic list of kings, occurring in the Purāṇas of doubtful authority, Hiraṇyanābha is mentioned as the immediate predecessor of Prasenajit (Pasenadi) who was a contemporary of Buddha. According to Buddhist tradition, Mahākosala was the father and immediate predecessor of Pasenadi.

⁸ Ancient Indian Historical Tradition, p. 276.

King Dilīpa II and his immediate descendants that the country acquired the name of Kośala.¹

We may form some idea of the extent of the Kośala country in the Epic period from the story of the exile of Rama. Therein we find that, after setting out from Ayodhya (then the capital of Kośala), the young princes accompanied by Sītā proceeded in a chariot. Evidently, then, there were good roads in the Kośala country, as we may also gather from the Jātaka stories, where we read that merchants loading as many as 500 wagons with their merchandise went from Magadha and the Licchavi countries through Kośala up to the western and north-western frontiers of India. Rāma made his first halt at the river Tamasā (the modern Tons). On the other side of the Tamasa, his chariot reached the Mahamarga or the 'great road', which was evidently a trade-route. Following this, the party reached the river Śrīmatī Mahānadī. After crossing the river Vedaśruti, Rāma turned his course towards the south. After proceeding a long distance, he crossed the Gomati and the Syandikā. Having crossed the Syandikā, Rāma pointed out to Sītā the wide plain given by Manu to Iksvāku. This region was evidently considered by the people of Kośala as the cradle of their race, the country with which Iksvāku began his career of conquest. This country was highly prosperous $(sph\bar{t}t\bar{a})$ and populous $(r\bar{a}stravrt\bar{a})$. Proceeding through the extensive Kośalan plains, Rāma left behind him the country of the Kośalas, and reached the Ganges, up to which river the Kośala dominion evidently extended. Here he arrived at Śrngaverapura which was the seat of the Niṣāda king Guha. Sir Alexander Cunningham has identified Srngaverapura with the modern Singror or Singor on the left bank of the Ganges and 22 miles to the north-west of Pravaga or Allahabad.2

In the *Adiparvan* of the *Mahābhārata* ³ we read that Janamejaya, one of the earliest kings of the Paurava family, was the son of Puru and Kauśalyā. Most probably this Kauśalyā was the daughter of a king of Kośala. When Yudhiṣthira was about to perform his Rājasūya sacrifice, setting himself up as paramount sovereign over the whole of N. India, and his brothers went out on their expeditions of conquest, it is said that Arjuna, Kṛṣṇa and Bhīma started from the Kuru kingdom and reached Mithilā after crossing pūrva (eastern) Kośala.⁴ Afterwards, the second Pāṇḍava brother, Bhīmasena, conquered Brhadbala, king of Kośala.⁵ and this Brhad-

¹ Ancient Indian Historical Tradition, p. 275.

² Arch. Survey Report, Vols. XI, 62 and XXI, 11. For further geography of Rāma's exile, see Pargiter, J.R.A.S., 1894, pp. 231 et seq.

³ Chap. 95, p. 105.

⁴ Sabhāparvan, Chap. 25, p. 240.

⁵ Ibid., Chap. 30, pp. 241-2.

bala attended the Rājasūya sacrifice. Karna, too, conquered Kośala and proceeded southwards after exacting tribute from the country.2 Evidently the conquest of Kośala by Karna was later than that by Bhīmasena, for we find the Kośala king Brhadbala, led by Duryodhana, marching against the Pandavas.3 Perhaps it was because the Kośalas were smarting under the defeat inflicted on them by Bhīmasena that they embraced the Kaurava side in the Kuruksetra war, in the course of which we find ten warriors including King Brhadbala of Kośala fighting in the van of the Kuru army.4 Brhadbala fought with Abhimanyu against whom the greatest leaders of the Kuru army led a united attack 5; and in the Karnaparvan 6 we read that Brhadbala was killed by Abhimanyu. Suksetra, the son of the king of Kośala, also fought in the great war between the Kurus and the Pandavas.7 After the war was ended, Kośala was again attacked and conquered by Arjuna before the performance of the Aśvamedha by Yudhisthira.8

As in the Epics, so also in the Purāṇas, the Kośalas are given great prominence among the Aryan Kṣatriya tribes of N. India. According to Purāṇa and Epic accounts, the Kośala line of kings derived from Ikṣvāku produced a large number of sovereigns who held the glory of the family very high, and some of them, like Māndhātā, Sagara, Bhagīratha and Raghu, occupied the highest

position amongst the kings of ancient India.

Most of the Purāṇas state that Ikṣvāku had a large number of sons who divided the whole of India amongst themselves. The Viṣṇupurāṇa says that Ikṣvāku had a hundred sons of whom fifty, with Sakuni at their head, became the protectors of N. India, and forty-eight established themselves as rulers over S. India. The Vāyupurāṇa says that it was not the sons of Ikṣvāku who divided the country among themselves, but the children of Ikṣvāku's son Vikukṣi. Though the number of Ikṣvāku's immediate descendants as given in the Purāṇas is obviously fanciful, yet it seems worthy of credence that the family sprung from Ikṣvāku spread their rule far and wide over India, as many of the ruling families of India trace their descent to him.

¹ Sabhāparvan, Chap. 34, p. 545.

² Vanaparvan, Chap. 253, p. 513.

Udyogaparvan, Chap. 97, p. 807.
 Bhīşmaparvan, Chap. 16, pp. 827-8.

⁵ Ibid., Chap. 45, p. 916. See also ibid., Chap. 57, pp. 924-5; Chap. 87, p. 957.

⁶ Chap. 5, pp. 1167-8.

⁷ Dronaparvan, Chap. 22, pp. 1012-13.
8 Asvamedhaparvan, Chap. 42, p. 2093.

⁹ E.g., Vișnupurāna, IV, 2, 3; Vāyupurāna, 88, 8-11.
¹⁰ Vișnupurāna, IV, 2, 3.

The Purāṇas state that Vikukṣi incurred the displeasure of his father, Ikṣvāku, by the violation of some ceremonial rule, but later ascended the throne and reigned according to law and custom (dharmatah). A mythical story is related of the next king, Parañjaya. It is said that his aid was sought after by the Devas who were hard pressed by the Asuras; but the king imposed the condition that he would do so if borne on the shoulders of Indra himself. The king thus obtained the name of Kakutstha.

Sixth in descent from Kakutstha was King Śrāvasta, the founder of the city of \$ravasti¹ which afterwards became the capital of northern Kośala. Śrāvasta's grandson, Kuvalayāśva, is credited with the overthrowing of an Asura, Dhundhu, which seems to signify the control of a natural phenomenon. According to the account given in the Purānas and the Mahābhārata, the Rsi Utanka complained to king Brhadaśva that his hermitage, which was situated on the sea-coast in the west, was disturbed by the Asura Dhundhu, who caused him much trouble, from a subterranean retreat (antarbhūmigatah). From the description that follows, it is manifest that this subterranean retreat (asura) was really a small volcanic pit near the western sea-coast which occasionally caused earthquakes and emitted smoke, ashes and fire. The old king Brhadaśva sent his son Kuvalayāśva to destroy the 'asura'. The prince went to the spot with an army of 21,000 men, who are said to be his sons, and whom he set to dig up the earth all around. After the excavation had proceeded for a week, the flaming body of Dhundhu became visible to all, but with disastrous consequences to the soldiers, who perished in the smoke and flames, only three surviving. cavation, however, appears to have opened a subterranean channel or reservoir of water, which rushed into the volcanic pit and extinguished it for ever; for we read that after Dhundhu had reduced to ashes the 21,000 sons of Kuvalayāśva, streams of water flowed out of his body, and by means of this water the prince put out the fire, and acquired the appellation of Dhundhumāra for this achievement.3

A few generations after Kuvalayāśva came the great monarch, Māndhātā, who became a cakravartin or emperor exercising suzerain sway. In Māndhātā's dominions, it was said, the sun never set: 'From where the sun rises to where it sets, all this is the land of Māndhātā, the son of Yuvanāśva.' As in the cases of Ikṣvāku and Kakutstha, fanciful stories based on a literal derivation of the name are narrated in the Purāṇas, which state that the name Māndhātā was

¹ Vișnupurāna, IV, 2, 12.

³ Vāyupurāņa, Chap. LXXXVIII.

² Vanaparvan, Chaps. 201-3.

⁴ Visnuburāna, IV, 2, xviii.

due to what Indra said 1 when the prince was born. The *Bhāgavata-purāṇa* adds that Māndhātā acquired the designation of Trasadasyu on account of the fear that he struck into the minds of the Dasyus. Māndhātā's daughters were given in marriage to the Rṣi Sauvari, and Purukutsa, one of the king's sons, married a Nāga girl (evidently

a girl of a non-Aryan tribe).

Trasadasyu, the son of this Nāga queen, ascended the throne on his father's death. His son Anaranya is said to have been killed by Rāvana. Several generations after this, Prince Satyavrata, son of the Kośala king, Trayyāruna, was in disfavour with his father as well as with the family priest Vasistha, and was given the name of Triśanku. Vaśistha's rival, Viśvāmitra, however, espoused his cause, and placed him on the throne of Kośala. Triśanku's son Hariścandra was a very great monarch of the Kośalas; he celebrated a Rājasūva sacrifice and became famous as a samrāt or emperor.2 The story of how Hariscandra promised to sacrifice his son to Varuna. and how finally Sunahsepa, a Brahman lad, was sacrificed instead, is told in the Aitareya Brāhmana and Bhāgavatapurāna. The latter also adds that there was a long-standing quarrel between Vasistha and Viśvāmitra over this Kośala king Hariścandra. Mahābhārata⁸ also speaks of the surpassing glories of King Hariscandra of Kosala.

With Vāhu, who came to the throne of Kośala several generations after Hariścandra, the Kośala power suffered a great reverse. Vāhu was defeated by his enemies, a confederacy of the Haihayas, Tālajanghas and other allied Ksatriya tribes, and was forced to abdicate. He repaired to the forest where after his death his wife gave birth to a son, who was reared with great care by Rsi Aurva, near whose hermitage the king had taken refuge and built his woodland home. This young prince, Sagara, had in him the making of a great king, and when he came of age he sought to revive the glories of Kośala and place it once more in the high position of suzerain power in India. Sagara almost exterminated the Haihayas. A fanciful Purāņa story says that Sagara had one son Asamañjas by one of his queens, and sixty thousand sons by another. Abandoning Asamañjas on account of his bad conduct, Sagara employed the sixty thousand sons to defend against all aggressors the horse of the Asvamedha in its unbridled career over the earth. In the course of their journey, they insulted Rsi Kapila, and, as a result, they were reduced to ashes by him. Sagara then sent Asamañjas' son,

^{1 &#}x27;Mām dhātā', 'he will suck me'.
2 Vāyupurāna, Chap. 88, verse 118.

³ III, Chap. 12. See also Mbh., Anuśāsanaparvan, XIII, 65; XII, 20, XIII, 3.

(moksa). Khatvānga's grandson was the great Raghu, and Raghu's grandson was Daśaratha, the father of Rāma, in whom the glory

of the Kośalan royal house reached its culmination.

After Rāma, the extensive Kośalan empire is said to have been divided amongst the sons of himself and his three brothers. sons of the youngest brother, Satrughna, ruled at Mathura; the sons of Laksmana established two kingdoms in the far north, in the neighbourhood of the Himālavas, while Bharata's sons founded the cities of Taksaśīlā and Puskarāvatī in the Gandhāra country, as the Vāyupurāna i tells us. The Kośala country proper is said to have been divided into two. In southern Kośala, Kuśa, the elder of the two sons of Rāma, became king, and transferred his capital from Ayodhyā to Kuśasthali which he built on the Vindhya range.2 Lava, the vounger, became the ruler of the northern Kośala country and set up his capital at the city of Sarāvatī or Śrāvastī which was still the seat of the Kośala sovereigns in the Buddha's time.

Among the kings that followed Kuśa in the main line of the Kośala monarchs we do not meet with any great name until we come to Hiranyanābha Kauśalya who is said to have been a disciple of Rsi Taimini, from whom he learnt the science of Yoga, and imparted it in his turn to Yājñavalkya.3 This distinction of proficiency in the Yogaśāstra is, however, transferred by some of the Purānas to Hiranyanābha's son, whom the Vāyupurāna 4 calls Vasistha, and the Visnupurāna, Pusya. The fifth in descent from Pusva was Maru or Manu who is said to be living in the village of Kalapa in a state of yoga, waiting to be the progenitor of the Ksatrivas in the next cycle. Several generations down from this monarch was Brhadbala who led the Kośala troops to the Kuruksetra war.

Many of the Puranas end their enumeration of the Kośala kings with Brhadbala, while some others, like the Bhāgavata,6 add a few more names of men who are called the future kings of the Iksvāku family. The Vāyupurāna also in a later chapter (Chap. 99) gives a list of the kings in the Iksvāku line after Brhadbala, whom it calls here Brhadratha. Five generations after this Brhadratha, the Vāyupurāna says that Divākara 'is at present ruling the city of Avodhyā', and after Divākara it speaks of the so-called future kings of the line. This list is substantially the same as the one in the Bhāgavata, and one peculiar feature of these lists is that they

¹ 88, 189-90.

² Vāyupurāņa, 88, 198: 'Vindhya-parvata-sānuşu.'

³ Bhāgavatapurāna, IX, 12. ⁵ IV, 4, 48.

^{4 88, 207-8.} 6 IX, 12, 16.

include Śuddhodana and Rāhula, of Buddhist fame. The list in the *Matsyapurāṇa* (Chap. 12) from Kuśa to the Bhārata war is considerably shorter than the others already referred to. It speaks of Śrutaya as the king who fell in the Bhārata war.

The history of Kośala in later times is known chiefly from Jaina and Buddhist literature. In the Jaina Kalpasūtra we read that on the death of Mahāvīra, the eighteen confederate kings of Kāśī and Kośala, the nine Mallakis and nine Licchavis, on the day of the new-moon instituted an illumination on the Posada (fasting day) ¹. Jacobi observes ²: 'According to the Jainas, the Licchavis and the Mallakis were the chiefs of Kāśī and Kośala. They seem to have succeeded the Aikṣvākas who ruled there in the time of the Rāmāyana.'

The Pāli Buddhist literature is full of information about Kośala, which occupied a very prominent position at the time of the Buddha, though it was already being eclipsed by the growing power of

Magadha.

The Pāli legends preserve the memory of kings of Kośala such as Kālasena, Dīghiti, Dīghāyu, Mallika and Vatika. One of these had his capital at Ayodhyā, some at Sāketa and the rest at Śrāvastī.³ No connected chronology of Kośalan kings can as yet be made out of these stray names; but the legends are nevertheless important, first, as clearly indicating a succession of three capitals in the kingdom of Kośala, Ayodhyā, Sāketa and Śrāvastī; and, secondly, as broadly outlining the four main stages in the historical process which culminated at about the time of the rise of Buddhism in the unquestioned supremacy of Kośala over Kāśī.

With regard to the first of these questions, we have already seen that Ayodhyā is mentioned in the *Rāmāyana* as the earlier capital of Kośala, and Śrāvastī as its later capital.⁴ Ayodhyā was an unimportant town in Buddha's time, while both Sāketa and Śrāvastī stood out prominently among the six great cities of India.⁵

The story of the rivalry between Kāśī and Kośala has already been treated at some length in our chapter on the Kāśīs, so that a summary will suffice here. In the first stage, as brought out in the canonical legend of Dīghīti and his son Dīghāyu Kumāra, King Brahmadatta appears as the powerful king of Kāśī invading the kingdom of Kośala, led by a love of conquest, easily defeating the Kośalan king Dīghīti, and ordering the execution of the Kośalan

⁵ Dīgha Nikāya, II, p. 146. Ray Chaudhuri, op. cit., p. 90.

² Jaina Sūtras, Pt. II, p. 321, n. 3.

¹ Kalpasūtra, §128, S.B.E., Vol. XXII, p. 266.

Ray Chaudhuri's Political History, 4th Ed., p. 90.
 Ibid., p. 90. Cf. Ghata Jātaka (No. 454) and Nandiyamiga Jātaka (No. 385).

king and queen when they were detected in the realm of Kāśī living harmlessly in disguise.¹ We then see how the Kośalan prince Dīghāyu, after having gained the favour of the king of Kāśī and risen to the position of a general, tried to avenge his parents, and was re-established in his father's kingdom.²

In the second stage, as portrayed in the *Rājovāda Jātaka* (Fausböll, No. 334), Kāśī and Kośala appear as two equally powerful kingdoms, flourishing side by side, each with its inner circle, outer districts, and border-lands, one ruled over by its king, Brahmadatta, and the other by King Mallika. We see the ruler of Kāśī following the religious principle of 'conquering wrath by wrathlessness' (akkodhena jine kodhaṃ), and the ruler of Kośala following the strong administrative principle of 'applying hardness for the hard and softness for the soft' (daļhaṃ daļhassa khipati Malliko mudunā mudum).

In the third stage, as disclosed in the *Mahāsīlava Jātaka* (Fausböll, No. 51), the king of Kośala appears as taking advantage of the goodness of the king of Kāśī and invading the neighbouring kingdom, and the king of Kāśī as remaining passive in the consciousness

of his superior dignity and religious security.8

Finally, in the fourth stage, Kāśī was absorbed by Kośala, and we find King Mahākośala, father and immediate predecessor of Pasenadi, wielding sovereign power over the extended realm of Kāśī-Kośala. Mahākośala gave his daughter Kosaladevī in marriage to King Bimbisāra of Magadha, and gave her a village in Kāśī yielding a revenue of a hundred thousand for bath and perfume money. When Ajātaśatru put his father Bimbisāra to death, Kosaladevī died of grief. For some time after her death, Ajātaśatru continued to enjoy the revenues of the village, but Pasenadi, king of Kośala, resolved that no parricide should have a village which had been given to his sister and so confiscated it. A war ensued between Ajātaśatru and Pasenadi, in which Ajātaśatru was at first victorious, but was afterwards taken prisoner by the Kośalan king. After he had been subdued, however, he was treated generously by Pasenadi who gave him his daughter in marriage, and even bestowed the disputed village on her as a wedding gift.⁵

¹ Vinaya Piṭaka, Mahāvagga, pp. 342-9.

² See also Jātaka, III, 211f., 487; and Kāśī chapter of the present work, where this story and the similar one of Prince Chatta are dealt with.

³ Jataka (Fausböll), I, 262f.; see also I, 409; Udāna Comm., 123; and see Kāśi chapter.

⁴ Jātaka, II, p. 237; IV, 342ff.

⁵ Samyutta Nikāya, I, pp. 82-5. See Kāśi and Magadha chapters, and Jātaka, Vol. IV, p. 343.

In addition to the stories of the rivalry between Kāśī and Kośala which we have already dealt with in the Kāśī chapter, two more may be mentioned,—the stories of Dabbasena, king of Kośala, who seized a holy king of Benares, and was discomfited by a mystic experience¹; and of Manoja, king of Benares, and a king of Kośala. The latter story is related in the Sonananda Jātaka. Manoja pitched his camp near the city of Kośala (i.e. Śrāvastī?), and sent a message to the king of Kośala asking him either to give battle or to surrender. The king accepted the challenge, and a fierce fight ensued, in which the king of Kośala was defeated, but he was allowed to retain his kingdom.²

From the Jātaka stories of the two neighbouring countries of Kāśī and Kośala, it is evident that there was great mutual jealousy between the two kingdoms actuated by a constant spirit of hostility. Each was looking out for an opportunity to inflict a defeat on the other, and annex either the whole or at least a part of the other's dominions. Sometimes they also appear to have been connected by matrimony, and it is probable that the two countries were united sometimes by conquest and sometimes perhaps by a common heir succeeding to the throne of both countries. Even in Vedic times they were closely associated, as is shown by the phrase Kāśī-Kośala, which occurs in Vedic literature.

In the *Dīgha Nikāya* we read that Pasenadi, king of Kāśī-Kośala, used to collect taxes from the inhabitants of these two countries. He used to share his income with his subordinates. The *Mahāvagga*, however, mentions a Kāsika-rājā (king of Kāśī?) who sent a robe to Jīvaka.³ Buddhaghoṣa says that he was a brother of Pasenadi, and son of the same father.⁴ He was probably a sub-king of Pasenadi,⁵ who managed to extend his rule so far as to reign as a supreme monarch with four sub-kings under him.⁶ Later, before the end of Ajātaśatru's reign, some parts of Kośala were annexed to the kingdom of Magadha,⁵ and Kośala finally disappears from history as an independent kingdom, evidently being absorbed by Magadha.⁶ There is nothing surprising about this course of events, for, as the *Cambridge History of India*⁰ points out, India appeared as a number of kingdoms and republics with a constant tendency towards amalgamation.

Jātaka, III, p. 13.
 Vin., I, 281.

² Ibid., V, pp. 315-16. ⁴ Vinaya Texts, II, 195, n. 2.

⁵ Malalasekera, Dictionary of Pāli Proper Names, s.v. Kāšī.

⁶ See article, 'Kosala', B. C. Law, Indian Culture, Vol. I, No. 3.

Bhandarkar, Carmichael Lectures, 1918, p. 79.
 Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 45.

⁹ I, p. 190.

In the north, the Kośala country bordered on the region occupied by the Śākyas, and there were mutual jealousies between the two peoples, often developing into war. When Pasenadi was at the height of his power, the Śākyas became his vassals, and he received homage from them.¹ The story of how Pasenadi acquired a Śākyan bride (Mallikā, a Vāsabhakhattiyā) has been related in our Śākya chapter. Pasenadi had a great admiration for the Buddha, and many stories are told of his dealings with the Buddha and his disciples. The king became the Buddha's disciple after meeting him at Jetavana.²

Pasenadi was famous for his charity. While Buddha was residing at Śrāvastī in the ārāma of Anāthapiṇḍika at Jetavana, the king made gifts for a week on an immense scale. These gifts were known as asadisadāna (incomparable charity).³ The king of Kośala provided Kuṇḍa-Dhāna with all necessaries when the latter left the world after hearing the Buddha preach.⁴ A great preaching hall (Saddhamma Mahāsālā) was built by Pasenadi for the Buddha. On another occasion, Pasenadi performed a great sacrifice in which 500 bulls, 500 calves, 500 goats, and other animals were offered. Buddha, when requested to attend, expressed his disapproval of this sacrifice, as he was against the taking of life by slaughter.⁵

After the death of his wife, Mallikā, Pasenadi went to the Buddha at Jetavana, and He consoled him in his grief.⁶ Pasenadi was also

consoled by the Buddha when his grandmother died.7

The Buddhist texts contain many stories about eminent men and women of Kośala, and many of these are in some way associated with Pasenadi. For instance, Mallikā, queen of Pasenadi, built an ārāma at the Kośala capital, Srāvastī, known as Mallikārāma, where the teacher Poṭṭhapāda went to live. The Dīgha Nikāya tells us that Pokkharasādi, a famous Brāhman teacher of Kośala, enjoyed some property given to him by Pasenadi. The king did not allow him to enter his presence, but used to consult him behind a screen. Buddhaghoṣa also furnishes some details about this sage. Pokkharasāti or Pokkharasādi, says he, was a Brāhmaṇa, living at Ukkaṭṭhanagara, which had been given him by the king of Kośala, Pasenadi, as Brahmadeyya (i.e. as a Brahmin's fee). He was well versed in the Vedas and in the arts, and the king bestowed Ukkaṭṭhanagara upon him because he was satisfied by a display

Dīgha Nikāya, II, p. 83.
 Samyutta Nikāya, I, pp. 68-70.
 Pithavimāna, Vimānavatthu Comm., pp. 5-6.

⁴ Psalms of the Brethren, pp. 19-20.

Samyutta Nikāya, I, p. 76.
 Samyutta Nikāya, I, p. 97.

⁶ Anguttara Nikāya, III, p. 57.
⁸ Dīgha Nikāya, I, pp. 178ff.

⁹ Ibid., I, p. 103.

of his learning.¹ A certain Aggidatta was the purohita or royal chaplain of Mahākosala, father of Pasenadi, and Pasenadi also accepted him as his purohita. Later, Moggallāna converted Aggidatta and his disciples to Buddhism.²

Another chaplain of Pasenadi was Bāvarī who was the son of the chaplain of Pasenadi's father. Pasenadi bestowed honour and wealth upon Bāvarī, and learnt the arts (sippa) from him in his youth. Bāvarī later took ordination and lived in the royal garden, many Brāhmaṇas becoming his disciples. Pasenadi served him daily with the four requisites. Afterwards Bāvarī and his disciples went to the Deccan. Pasenadi also invited two prominent merchants,

Mendakasetthi and Dhanañjayasetthi, to settle in Kośala.4

The story of the conversion of the Kośala country to the Buddhist faith is told in some detail in the *Majjhima Nikāya*. Here we read that, in the course of his journey over N. India, on one occasion, the Buddha was sojourning in Kośala, and went to Sālā, a Brahmin village of Kośala. The Brahmin householders of Sālā went to see him and asked him various metaphysical questions which he answered to their satisfaction, and they became his life-long disciples. Once the Buddha went to Nagaravinda, a Brahmin village of Kośala. There many Brahmaṇa householders came to see him, attracted by reports of his fame as a great teacher. After listening to his preaching, they became converted to the new faith. Another Brahmin village visited by the Buddha in Kośala was Venāgapura. Here, too, the Brāhmaṇa householders went to pay their respects to him and talk with him. Buddha spent much of his time at Śrāvastī and most of his sermons were delivered there.

As we have seen, the capital cities of Kośala were Śrāvastī (Pāli Sāvatthī) and Sāketa. Many fanciful explanations of the name Sāvatthī have been suggested. For instance, it was said that Sāvatthī was so called because the sage Sāvattha resided there. The author of the *Papañcasūdanī* holds that everything required by human beings is to be found there: hence it is called Sāvatthī (sabba and

¹ Sumangalavilāsinī, I, pp. 244-5.

² Dhammapada Comm., Pt. III, pp. 241ff.

³ Suttanipāta Comm., II, pp. 579ff.

⁴ Dhammapada Comm., Pt. 1, pp. 384ff. For further references to Pasenadi, see Dhammapada Comm., II, pp. 1ff.; Saṃyutta Nikāya, I, pp. 78-93; Aṅguttara Nikāya, V, pp. 65ff.

⁶ Majjhima Nikāya, I, pp. 400ff. For another story of the Buddha and Kośala,

see Majjhima Nikāya, II, pp. 45ff., and Anguttara Nikāya, I, pp. 205ff.

⁸ Majjhima Nikāya, III, pp. 290ff.

⁷ Anguttara Nikāya, I, pp. 180ff. See also Samyutta Nikāya, V, pp. 352ff.

⁸ Samyutta Nikāya, V, pp. 349ff.

atthi).¹ According to the Purāṇas, Śrāvastī is said to have been built by king Śrāvasta, eighth in descent from Vivakṣu, son of Iksvāku.²

Sāvatthī was situated in what is now the province of Oudh.³ It is now known as Maheṭh of the village group Saheṭh-Maheṭh on the borders of the Gonda and Bahraich districts of the United Provinces.⁴

The Pāli Buddhist literature is full of facts regarding the glories of Sāvatthī. Many of the Buddha's most edifying discourses were delivered at the Kośala capital, which was the place of residence of two of the most munificent benefactors of the Buddhist Samgha. viz. Anāthapindika, the great merchant, and Visākhā Migāramātā. the most liberal-hearted of the ladies figuring in the Buddhist literature. Sāvatthī is mentioned in the Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta of the Dīgha Nikāya as a great city. It was the resort of many wealthy nobles, Brahmins, heads of houses and believers in the Tathagata. In one of the Jatakas we read that there was at Sāvatthī a rich merchant who was worth eighteen crores 5; in another we read that at Sāvatthī, in the house of Anāthapindika, food was always ready for 500 brethren, and the same thing is told about Visākhā and the king of Kośala.6 In the Vimānavatthu we read that the Kosalas and especially the inhabitants of Sāvatthī were remarkable for their charity, which, they believed, was one of the principal ways of obtaining heavenly bliss.

References to the connection of the Buddha and his disciples with Sāvatthī are too numerous to be dealt with in full. Some famous names in the annals of Buddhism which are associated with the Kośalan capital are those of Nandaka,7 Mahāpajāpatī Gotamī,8 Sāriputta and Ānanda. Sāvatthī contributed a fair number of bhikkhus and bhikkhunīs to the Order. For instance, Mahāsuvaṇṇa, a banker of Sāvatthī, had two sons, the elder of whom became a bhikkhu under the Buddha and was known as Cakkhupāla. Thul-

⁵ *[ātaka*, VI, p. 68.

11 Dhammapada Comm., I, pp. 3ff.

¹ Papañcasūdanī, I, pp. 59-60; B. C. Law, Śrāvastī in Indian Literature, M.A.S.I., No. 50, p. 19.

² Viṣṇupurāṇa, Chap. 2, Aṃśa 4; cf. Bhāgavatapurāṇa, 9th skandha, Chap. 6, śl. 21; Matsyapurāṇa, Chap. 21, śl. 30; Kūrmapurāṇa, Chap. 23, śl. 19; Lingapurāṇa, Chap. 95.

³ Edkins, Chinese Buddhism, p. 290. 4 Carmichael Lectures, 1918, p. 51.

⁶ Ibid., IV, p. 144; see also pp. 236-7.

⁷ Majjhima Nikāya, III, pp. 270ff.; Anguttara Nikāya, I, pp. 193ff.

⁹ Anguttara Nikāya, I, pp. 63ff., 118ff.

¹⁰ Ibid., pp. 215ff.; Dīgha Nikāya, I, pp. 204ff.

latissa, the Buddha's cousin, lived at Sāvatthī as a bhikkhu.¹ Paṭācārā was the daughter of a rich banker of Sāvatthī. She afterwards became a bhikkhuṇī.² Kisāgotamī, also the daughter of a seṭṭhi of Sāvatthī, became a bhikkhuṇī after the death of her only child.³ Nanda, the son of Mahāpajāpatī Gotamī, was made a bhikkhu by the Buddha at Sāvatthī.⁴ Others who became bhikkhus were Anitthigandhakumāra,⁵ Vakkali,⁶ Kaṅhārevata,ˀ Vīra,⁶ Kuṇḍadhāna ⁶ and Ajita.¹⁰ In the Therīgāthā we read that Sumanā was born at Sāvatthī as the sister of the king of Kośala. She heard the Master preach the doctrine to King Pasenadi. She put faith in the Buddha, entered the Order, and afterwards became an arahant.¹¹ In the Suttanipāta Commentary we read that there lived at Sāvatthī a paribbājaka named Pasura who was a great disputant. He held discussions with Sāriputta, Lāludāyi and the Buddha, and was finally converted to Buddhism.¹²

As we may gather from the various accounts, there were many merchants at Sāvatthī. They used to go to Videha with cartloads of merchandise to sell there, and take Videhan commodities in exchange.¹³ Some merchants of Sāvatthī went to Suvarṇabhūmi in a ship,¹⁴ and others went to the northern regions (*Uttarāpatha*), taking with them 500 cartloads of merchandise.¹⁵

Śrāvastī was visited by the two famous Chinese Pilgrims, Fā-Hien, and Hsüan Tsang, but the glories of the once splendid capital of Kośala had departed at the time of their visit. When Fā-Hien went to Śrāvastī (in the fifth century A.D.), the inhabitants of the city were few, amounting in all to little more than two hundred families. The pilgrim refers to King Prasenajit of Kośala, and he saw the place where the old vihāra of Mahāpajāpatī Gotamī was built, the wells and walls of the house of Anāthapindika, and the site where Angulimāla attained arahantship. Topes were built at all these places. 16

Cunningham points out on the authority of Hsüan Tsang that five centuries after Buddha or one century after Kaniska, Vikramāditya, king of Śrāvastī, became a persecutor of the Buddhists, and the famous Manorhita, author of the *Vibhāsaśāstra*, committed suicide after being defeated in argument by the Brāhmaṇas. During the reign of Vikramāditya's successor, the Brāhmaṇas were over-

Dhammapada Comm., I, pp. 37ff.
 Ibid., II, pp. 26off.
 Ibid., I, pp. 115ff.
 Ibid., III, pp. 281ff.
 Ibid., IV, p. 118.

⁷ Psalms of the Brethren, p. 7.

8 Ibid., pp. 13 14.

9 Ibid., pp. 19-20.

¹¹ Psalms of the Sisters, pp. 19-20. 12 Suttanipāta Comm., II, pp. 538ff. 18 Buddhist Conception of Spirits, 2nd Ed., p. 63. 14 Ibid., p. 64.

¹⁵ Ibid., p. 96. 16 Legge, Travels of Fā-Hien, pp 55-6.

come by Vasubandhu, the eminent disciple of Manorhita. In the third century A.D., Sravasti seems to have been under the rule of its own kings, for we find Khīradhāra and his nephew mentioned as rājās between A.D. 275 and 319. Still later, Śrāvastī was a dependency of the powerful Gupta dynasty of Magadha, as the neighbouring city of Sāketa is especially said to have belonged to the Guptas. From this time \$ravasti gradually declined.

A famous Buddhist site at Śrāvastī was the Jetavana, where Anāthapindika built a vihāra which was originally of seven storeys. This vihara was dedicated to Buddha and the Buddhist Church

by Prince Jeta.1

In later times, North Kośala itself came to be known as Śrāvastī in order to distinguish it from South Kośala. Hsüan Tsang, who visited India in the seventh century A.D., says that Śrāvastī, i.e. North Kośala, was about 600 li in circuit. Although it was mostly in ruins, there were some inhabitants. The country had good crops and an equable climate, and the people were honest in their ways. and given to learning, and fond of good works. There were some hundreds of Buddhist monasteries, most of which were in ruins. The brethren, who were very few, were Sammatiyas. There were a hundred deva-temples, and the non-Buddhists were very numerous. The preaching half built by Pasenadi for the Buddha still survived. and there were several topes, 2 many Buddhist monasteries, and many Mahāvānist brethren.3

Another important town of Kośala was Sāketa, which was the capital in the period immediately preaching the Buddha's time.4 The road from Saketa to Śravasti was haunted by robbers, who were dangerous to passers-by. Even the bhikkhus, who had very little in their possession, were robbed of their belongings and sometimes killed by the robbers. Royal soldiers used to come to the spot where robbery was committed, and used to kill those robbers whom they could arrest.5

Besides Sāvatthī and Sāketa, we find mention of other towns in the Kośala country, e.g. Dandakappaka, Nalakapāna, Setavya and Pankadha. Once the Buddha gave a discourse to Ananda at Dandakappa, and he also visited Nalakapana, where he dwelt at Palāsavana, and gave religious instruction to the bhikkhus on an uposatha night.7 On another occasion Kumārakassapa went to Setavya with a large number of bhikkhus. The chief of Setavya,

¹ Legge, Travels of Fā-Hien, pp. 56-7; Khuddakapāṭha Comm., pp. 110-2.

² Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. I, p. 377. ⁸ *Ibid.*, Vol. II, p. 200. 4 Carmichael Lectures, 1918, p. 51. ⁵ Vinaya Texts, Pt. I, pp. 220-1.

⁶ Anguttara Nikāya, III, pp. 402ff. ⁷ *Ibid.*, V, pp. 122ff.

Pāyāsi, enjoyed enormous wealth which had been given him by King Pasenadi. He was a false believer, but was converted by Kumārakassapa.¹ The Buddha visited Paṅkadhā, and gave instruction to Kassapagotta, a bhikkhu who was dwelling there.²

In the Samyutta Nikāya⁸ we find mention of a village named Toraṇavatthu, between Sāvatthī and Sāketa. In this village, the bhikkhuṇī Khemā was observing lent, when Pasenadi spent one night there on his way from Sāketa to Sāvatthī. Hearing of Khemā, he went to her, and she answered to his satisfaction questions

regarding life after death.4

The Jātakas and Vinaya texts are full of details about Kośala. In one Jātaka there is a vivid description of a drought in Kośala, when the crops were withered, and ponds, tanks and lakes were dried up.⁵ Gangs of burglars, highwaymen and murderers were not unknown in Kośala,⁶ and the inhabitants were often carried away and killed by them.⁷ Their activities could not easily be checked, for the Kośala country included the forest-clad hills and valleys of the outer spurs of the Himālayas.

In the *Pabbajjā Suttanta* of the *Suttanipāta* (p. 73), we read that the inhabitants of Kośala were healthy and powerful. One Jātaka story says that in Kośala there was a Brahmin who by simply smelling a sword could say whether it was lucky or not.

The Kośalan kings and princes received a good education, usually being 'finished' at Taxila. For instance, in the Brahāchatta Jātaka we read that Chatta, a son of the king of Kośala, fled to Taxila when his father was taken prisoner, and there he mastered the three Vedas and eighteen vijjās. While at Taxila he also learnt the science of discovering hidden treasure, and on his return he acquired his deceased father's buried wealth, engaged troops and reconquered the lost kingdom. King Pasenadi was also educated at Taxila; Mahāli, a Licchavi prince, and a Malla prince of Kuśīnārā were his class-mates. 10

Rhys Davids points out ¹¹ that a conversational dialect, probably based on the local dialect of Śrāvastī, was in general use among Kośala officials, among merchants and among the more cultured classes, not only throughout the Kośala dominions but east and west

¹ Dīgha Nikāya, II, pp. 316ff.

³ Vol. IV, pp. 374ff.

Jātaka, Vol. I, p. 329.
 Vinaya Texts, Pt. I, p. 312.

⁹ *Ibid.*, Vol. III, pp. 115-6.

¹⁰ Dhammapada Comm., Pt. I, pp. 337-8.

¹¹ Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 153.

² Anguttara Nikāya, I, p. 236.

⁴ Samyutta Nikāya, IV, pp. 374ff.

⁶ *Ibid.*, Vol. II, p. 139.

⁸ *Jātaka*, Vol. I, p. 455.

from Delhi to Patna, and north and south from Śrāvastī to Avanti. Jacobi observes that the *Rāmāyaṇa* was composed in Kośala on the basis of ballads popularly recited by rhapsodists throughout the district. Kośala was also the very centre of Buddhist literary activity.¹

¹ Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 183.

CHAPTER XXIX

THE VATSAS

The Vaśas or Vatsas were one of the peoples of Vedic Aryandom from the earliest period. A certain Vaśa Aśvya is mentioned in several hymns of the first and eighth maṇḍalas of the Rgveda, and also once in the tenth, as a protégé of the Aśvins.¹ He is also mentioned in the Sāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra.² It would seem that this Vaśa Aśvya was a Brahmin Rṣi and not a Kṣatriya. He is said to have been the author of the Vaśa hymn in the Brāhmaṇas and the Āraṇyakas.³ It is possible to take Vaśa as a personal name, but it is equally likely that Vaśa here is a tribal designation and Aśvya the personal proper name.

Vasa is mentioned as the name of a people in the Aitareya Brāhmana 4 which says, '... Therefore, in this firm middle established quarter (Dhruva-madhyamā), whatever kings there are of the Kuru-Pañcalas with the Vasas and Usinaras, they are anointed for kingship...' Here we observe that the Vasas are spoken of as one of the Vedic tribes living in the *Dhruva-madhyamā dik* or the Madhyadeśa of Manu, along with the Kurus, Pañcālas and Uśīnaras. connection with this last tribe appears also to be proved by the Gopatha Brāhmana (I, 2, 9) where Oldenberg reads Sa-vaśa-Uśīnaresu instead of Savasa in the printed edition. In the Kausītaki Upanisad, too, we have mention of the Vasas together with the Usinaras, Matsvas, Kurus and Pañcālas. The Pāli Anguttara Nikāya mentions the land of the Vamsas (identified by Oldenberg with the Vasas) as one of the sixteen Mahājanapadas, along with the Cedis, Kurus, Pañcālas, Matsyas, Śūrasenas, etc., who appear to have been their close neighbours. The Janavasabha-Suttanta associates the Vamsas rather with the Cedis than with the Usinaras, and mentions the powerful ruling peoples of the time in such groups as Kāśī-Kośala, Vajji-Mallā, Cedi-Vamsā, Kuru-Pañcālā and Maccha-Sūrasenā.

In the Pāli Buddhist canon, King Udena of the Vaṃśas is said to have been a contemporary of the Buddha, and to have survived him. Both in Pāli Buddhist and in Brahmanic Sanskrit literature,

4 VIII, 14, 3.

⁵ IV, 1.

¹ R.V., I. 112, 10; 116, 21; VIII, 8, 20; 24, 14; 46, 21, 23; 50, 9; X, 40, 7.

XVI, 11, 13.
 Satapatha Brāhmana, VIII, 6, 2, 3; IX, 3, 3, 19; Aitareya Āranyaka, I, 5, 1, 2;
 Sānkhāyana A., II, 10, 11.

stories are recited about this King Udena of the Vaṃsas (Pāli) or Udayana of the Vatsas (Sanskrit). His capital is mentioned as Kosambī or Kauśāmbī respectively, so evidently the Vaṃśas and Vatsas are identical. In the Jaina books the same people are spoken of as Vacchas.¹

The country of the Vamsas or Vatsas must therefore have been located round about Kauśāmbī, the position of which has been identified by Cunningham with Kosām, not very far from Allahabad. According to the *Bṛhatsaṃhitā*, the land of the Vatsas was in the middle region. It probably lay to the north-east of Avanti along the bank of the Jumna, southwards from Kośala² and to the west of Allahabad.³ The Chinese pilgrim Hsüan Tsang, who speaks of the land of the Vatsas as the Kauśāmbī country, says that it was about 6,000 li in circuit.⁴

The Mahābhārata contains certain items of traditional information regarding the Vatsa-bhūmi or land of the Vatsas. In one passage, we are told that, prior to the Rājasūya sacrifice performed by Yudhiṣṭhira, Bhīmasena led an expedition towards the east and conquered the Vatsa-bhūmi; while in the Vanaparvan, it is stated that Vatsa was conquered by Karṇa. Elsewhere we read that the Haihayas of the Cedi country seized the capital of the Vatsas after killing Haryaśva who must have been a king of Vatsa. In the Bhīṣmaparvan, it is said that in the Kurukṣetra war, the Vatsa army took the side of the Pāṇḍavas. Nakula and Sahadeva along with the Vatsas and others guarded the left side of the Pāṇḍava army.

According to the tradition in the *Harivaṃśa*, the Vatsa-bhūmi was founded by a royal prince of Kāśī, while, according to the *Mahā-bhārata* proper, its capital Kauśāmbī was founded by the Cedi prince Kusāmba. The Pāli tradition in the *Mahāvaṃsa Commentary* suggests that fourteen pre-Ikṣvāku kings of the Solar dynasty, headed by Baladatta, ruled the Vatsa kingdom with their capital at Kauśāmbī.

The Purāṇas tell us that after Hastināpura was carried away by the Ganges, Nicakṣu who was the fifth in descent from the Puru prince Parikṣit, grandson of Arjuna, transferred his capital to Kauśāmbī where altogether twenty-five Puru kings,¹o from Nicakṣu to

⁶ Chap. 253, pp. 513-14.

¹ Uvāsagadasāo, Hoernle, Vol. II, Appendix I, p. 7. ² Buddhist India, p. 3.

³ N. L. Dey, Geographical Dictionary, p. 100. 4 Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. I, p. 365.

Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. I, p. 365.
 Chap. 30, pp. 241-2.

⁷ Anuśāsanaparvan, Chap. 30, p. 1899.
9 Vamsatthappakāsinī, I, pp. 128, 130.

⁸ Chap. 50, p. 924.

¹⁰ Rhys Davids (Camb. Hist., I, p. 308) says: 'The later list contains the names of 29 Puru kings who lived after the war. They reigned first at Hastināpura, the

Ksemaka, reigned.¹ In this genealogy we are given the succession of the kings of Vatsa from Nicaksu to Ksemaka without the length of their reigns. Udayana, who was a contemporary of the Buddha, is represented as the son and successor of Satānīka; and the four successors of Udayana as Vahīnara, Dandapāni, Nirāmitra and Ksemaka. The evidence of Buddhist literature in general, and of the Pāli canon in particular, clearly proves the contemporaneity of Udayana, the king of Vatsa, with Canda Pradvota (Pāli Canda Pajjota) of Avanti, Prasenajit (Pasenadi) of Kośala, and Bimbisāra and Ajātaśatru of Magadha. It is interesting to find that the Puranas mention just four kings who succeeded to the throne of Avanti after Canda Pradyota, and four kings who succeeded to the throne of Kośala after Prasenajit.2 The total length of the reigns of the five kings of Avanti from Pradyota to Nandivardhana is given as 138 years, Pradyota's four successors having reigned altogether for 115 years.³ Among the kings of N. India who were contemporaries of the Buddha, Bimbisara pre-deceased him by about 8 years, and Ajātaśatru survived the Buddha by 16 years; Prasenajit, who was of the same age as the Buddha, died almost in the same year; and though both Pradyota and Udayana survived the Buddha, they could not have lived or reigned for more than 10 or 15 years after the Buddha's demise. Thus, on the whole, it may be surmised that Avanti, Kośala and Vatsa retained their independence for about a century after the Buddha's death, and lost it only during the period of the Nandas. We know that when King Aśoka Maurya ascended the throne of Magadha, the three ancient kingdoms of Kośala, Vatsa and Avanti were already included in the Maurya empire. Ujjeni or Avanti was placed under a Vicerov of Aśoka, while Kauśāmbī or Vatsa was governed by a Mahāmātra.4

The Lalitavistara contains a tradition according to which King Udayana was born on the same day as the Buddha.⁵ He appears to have strengthened his political position by matrimonial alliances

ancient capital of the Kuru princes, which is usually identified with a ruined site in the Meerut district on the old bed of the Ganges, lat. 29° 9′ N., long 78° 3′ E. (Pargiter, Mārk. Pur., p. 355); but when this city was destroyed by an inundation of the Ganges in the reign of Nichakshu, they removed the seat of their rule to Kauśāmbī.... Another of their capitals was Indraprastha in the Kuru plain, the ancient city of the Pāndu princes...'

¹ For the genealogy in full, see Pargiter, Dynasties of the Kali Age, pp. 65-6.
2 Ibid., pp. 67-8.
3 Ibid., p. 68.

⁴ Aśoka's Kauśāmbī Schism Pillar Edict.

⁵ Vide Foucaux, Tr. of the Tibetan version of the Lalitavistara; cf. Rockhill, The Life of the Buddha, pp. 16-17.

with the neighbouring kings, particularly with King Canda Pradyota of Avanti. Stories of Udayana and his queens abound in Sanskrit and Pāli literature, and provide the themes for no less than four dramas.1 The Pāli legends tell us that Udayana ascended the throne of Vatsa by the assertion and establishment of his rightful claim as the son and successor of his father Parantapa.² In the Udenavatthu, Vatsa is described as a pavenirajja, i.e. a kingdom in which succession to the throne was determined by the law of primogeniture.3 In most of the other references, whether Brahmanical, Jaina, or Buddhist, Śatānīka (better, Śatānīka II) is represented as Udayana's father. In the Skandapurāṇa alone, Sahasrānīka is represented as the father and Satānīka as the grandfather of Udayana. The Skandapurāna speaks of Šatānīka as a king of Kauśambi who belonged to the family of Ariuna, was powerful and intelligent, beloved by his subjects, and who was killed in a war between the Devas and the Asuras.6 According to the Jaina tradition, Udayana's father Satānīka II invaded Campā, the capital of Anga, during the reign of King Dadhivāhana. According to the Skandapurāna and Vividhatīrthakalpa, Udayana's mother was Queen Mṛgāvatī, granddaughter of Kṛtavarmā, king of Ayodhyā.8 In the plays of Bhāsa, Udayana is described as Vaidehīputra, which indicates that his mother was princess of Videha.9

Udayana was a warlike king who kept a strong army noted for its elephants. Envious of his fellow-monarch's wealth and prosperity, Canda Pradyota of Avanti laid a trap for Udayana when he was visiting the frontier of his kingdom, and succeeded in taking him captive. He made his escape from captivity with the help of Vāsuladattā or Vāsavadattā, daughter of Caṇḍa Pradyota, who eloped with Udayana and became his chief queen. 10

10 Dhammapada Comm., I, pp. 191-9, and Svapnavāsavadattā.

¹ Bhāsa's Svapnavāsavadattā and Pratijnāyaugandharāyana; Harṣa's Ratnāvalī and Priyadarśikā. The legends of Udavana are also to be found in the Brahmakhanda of the Skandapurāna, the Jaina Vividhatīrthakalpa, the Lalitavistara, Tibetan Buddhist literature, Pāli Udenavatthu, Sanskrit Mākandika Avadāna, and the Si-yu-ki of Hsüan Tsang.

³ Ibid., I, p. 169. ² Dhammapada Comm., I, pp. 165 foll. 4 Vividhatīrthakalpa, ed. Jina Vijaya Sūri, p. 23.

⁵ Cf. The Romantic Legend of Sākya Buddha, p. 28, in which King Pih-Shing or 'Hundred Excellences', i.e. Satānīka, is represented as the son of Tsien-Shing ('Thousand Excellences' or Sahasrānīka). It should be noted that 'anīka' can also mean 'army, host'; it would appear that Parantapa, Śatānīka and Sahasrānīka may all be taken to refer to the valour and martial strength of the king of Vatsa.

⁶ Chap. 5, Brahmakhanda. ⁷ *I.A.S.B.*, 1914, p. 321.

⁸ Skandapurāna, Chap. V, Brahmakhanda. 9 Vividhatīrthakalpa, p. 23; Bhandarkar, Carmichael Lectures, 1918, p. 59.

According to the Pāli legend, Udayana was born and brought up in the Himalayan region, in the hermitage of a sage who was previously a native of Allakappa. He was named Udena or Udayana because of his birth, just at sunrise, on the top of a hill, and under a clear sky. According to another Buddhist legend in the Tibetan Dulva, 'as the world was illuminated at his birth, as with the sun, he was called Udayana'.

Udayana is said to have married Sāmāvatī (Śyāmāvatī), daughter of a banker of Bhaddavatī, who was brought up in the family of the banker Ghosita of Kauśāmbī. Another of his wives was Māgandiyā or Mākandikā, an exquisitely beautiful Brahmin girl from the Kuru country,³ and yet another was Padmāvatī, daughter of King Ajātaśatru of Magadha.⁴ The Ratnāvalī represents Udayana as having also married Sāgarikā, a princess from Ceylon. In the Udenavatthu, each of his three queens Vāsuladattā, Sāmāvatī and Māgandiyā, is said to have been attended by 500 dancing girls. The Privadarśikā also speaks of a matrimonial alliance made by Udayana with Dṛḍhavarman, king of Anga. We are told that Udayana once helped Dṛḍhavarman to regain his throne.

In the Jaina Vividhatīrthakalþa (p. 23), Udayana is praised as an expert in the science of music (gandhabbaveya-niuno). ruled despotically and sometimes recklessly. When his queen Māgandiyā was found guilty of putting her co-wife Sāmāvatī to death. Udavana ordered her to be buried alive. According to one Buddhist tradition, a hermit fled to Śrāvastī when his life was threatened by Udayana.⁵ On one occasion, in a fit of drunken jealousy. Udayana tortured the Buddhist Thera Pindola Bhāradyāja by causing a nest of brown ants to be tied to his body. Later, however, he consulted this same Pindola about various spiritual matters,6 and ended by professing himself his disciple. We have no evidence that he proceeded very far along the path, but his fame has lasted in a curious way in Buddhist legends. Udayana is said to have made a golden image of the Buddha,7 and Hsüan Tsang brought back from India many things including a statue of the Buddha carved out of sandal-wood on a transparent pedestal. This figure is described as a copy of the statue which Udavana, king of Kauśāmbī.

¹ Dhammapada Comm., I, p. 165.

² Rockhill, Life of the Buddha, p. 17. Cf. Watters, On Yuan Chwang, I, p. 368.

³ Udenavatthu, pp. 161 foll.

⁴ Svapnavāsavadattā, Pratijāāyaugandharāyaņa.

Watters, On Yuan Chwang, I, p. 368.
 Samyutta Nikāya, IV, pp. 110-2.

⁷ Edkins, Chinese Buddhism, p. 49, 2nd Ed.

had made. It is said in the Si-vu-ki that in the city of Kauśāmbī, within an old palace, there was a large vihāra about 60 feet high, containing a figure of the Buddha carved out of sandal wood above which was a stone canopy. It was the work of the King U-to-yen-na (Udayana). By its spiritual qualities it produced a divine light, which from time to time shone forth. The princes of various countries had used their power to try to carry off this statue, but although many men tried, none could move it. They therefore worshipped copies of it, and pretended that their likeness was a true one, the original of all such figures.2 The Petavatthu records the erection of a vihāra by one Uttara, a wood-carver, in the service of King Udayana.3 The figure was known to have been made for King Udayana by a distinguished artist of the time.4 But nowhere in the earlier tradition is Udavana mentioned as the builder of any such temple or statue.

Immediately prior to the rise of Buddhism, there were four powerful monarchies in N. India, each of which was enlarged by the annexation of a neighbouring territory. Thus Anga was annexed to Magadha, Kāśī to Kośala, Bharga to Vatsa, and Śūrasena to Avanti. The kingdom of Vatsa must have served as a buffer State between Magadha and Avanti on the one hand, and Kośala and Avanti on the other. Bhāsa in his Svapnavāsavadattā tells us that an upstart named Aruni ousted Udayana and seized the throne

of Vatsa.⁵

As in earlier days, so during the reign of Aśoka in the third century B.C., Kauśāmbī stood on the high road connecting Vidisā and Ujjayinī with Benares and Pāṭaliputra. Aśoka appears to have been an overlord of Vatsa, and to have placed its administration in charge of Mahāmātras with their headquarters at Kauśāmbī. Kauśāmbī was probably the place of residence of Aśoka's second queen Kāluvākī, and her son Prince Tīvala; the edict on her donations was promulgated only at Kauśāmbī.

However that may be, Vatsa was finally absorbed into the Magadhan empire, probably during the reign of Sisunaga. We may infer from the inscriptions at Pabhosa that in the second century

² *Ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 235.

¹ Beal, Records of the Western World, Vol. I, Intro., p. xx.

³ This Uttara had friendly relations with Mahākaccāyana and various Buddhist Theras, but his mother was a believer in false doctrines, see Paramatthadīpanī on the Petavatthu, pp. 140-4; cf. also B. C. Law, The Buddhist Conception of Spirits, 2nd Ed., pp. 89-90.

Watters, On Yuan Chwang, I, p. 368.
Svapnavāsavadattā, Sukthankar's trsl., p. 64.

⁶ Bhandarkar, Carmichael Lectures, 1918, pp. 81 and 84.

B.C., Vatsa (Kauśāmbī) and Pañcāla (Ahicchatra) were governed by branches of the same royal family, and that both kingdoms acknowledged the suzerainty of the Sungas. Dhanabhūti, a Sunga feudatory, is called Vacchiputa, son of a princess of Vatsa.² It may be that King Dhanabhūti, the donor of Bharhut gateways, his father Agaraju and grandfather Viśvadeva were all local chiefs of Vatsa under the Sungas.3 However that may be, the stupa of Bharhut was erected in the Vatsa country not earlier than the second century B.C., the first pillar of its main railing being donated by Chāpādevī, wife of Revatīmitra, of Vidiśā.4 Revatīmitra was in all probability a member of the Śunga-Mitra family, stationed at Vidiśā. If this is so, we can say that when the Bharhut railing was erected, the Sunga dominions extended as far west as Vatsa and Avanti. As clearly proved by the inscriptions, when the Bharhut gateways were erected by King Dhanabhūti not earlier than the first century B.C., the Vatsa country was included in the Sunga empire (Suganam raje).5

An inscription on the gateway on the fort of Kara, dated Saṃvat 1093 (1036 A.D.), records the grant of the village of Payalāsa (modern Prās) in the Kauśāmbī-maṇḍala to one Māthura-vikaṭa of Pabhosā together with its customary duties, royalties, taxes, gold and tithes in perpetuity to his descendants by Mahārājādhirāja Vaśahpāla', who was the last Pratihāra king of Kanauj. The history of Vatsa or the country of Kauśāmbī as a political unit

ended with the rule of Yasahpala of Kanauj.

As we have seen, the Bhagga or Bharga State was a dependency of the Vatsa kingdom. We learn from the preface to the *Dhonasākha Jātaka*, No. 353, that Prince Bodhi, the son of Udayana, king of the Vatsas (by his queen Vāsuladattā or Vāsavadattā), dwelt on the Sumsumāragiri and built a palace called Kokanada. Sumsumāragiri, according to Buddhist tradition, was the capital of the Bharga kingdom; so evidently in the sixth century B.C. the territory of the Bhargas was a dependency of the Vatsa kingdom, governed by a Viceroy of the royal family of Kauśāmbī. Bhikṣu Rāhula Sam-

² *Ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 523.

¹ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, pp. 525-6.

³ Barua, Barhut, Bk. I, pp. 41-2, inclines tentatively to connect King Dhanabhūti and his predecessors with Mathurā or a nearby locality. Rapson, in Camb. Hist., loc. cit., observes: 'We may conclude that this family ruled at Bharhut, and that it was connected in some way with the royal family at Mathurā, more than 250 miles to the north-west.'

⁴ Barua and Sinha, Barhut Inscriptions, p. 3.

⁵ Ibid., No. I, p. 1. See B. C. Law, Kauśāmbī in Ancient Literature, M.A.S.I.,
No. 60, pp. 12-13, for a further discussion on the subject.
6 J.R.A.S., 1927, p. 694.

krityāyana proposes to identify the Bharga country with the present Mirzapur district, and its capital Suṃsumāragiri with the present Chunar hill.¹ Buddhaghoṣa suggests, however, that Suṃsumāragira (not Suṃsumāragiri) was the name of the principal town in the Bhagga country. Originally the Vatsas and Bhārgavas (or Bhaggas) were two ruling claus that settled down and founded kingdoms side by side. Vatsa and Bhārgu, from whom the Vatsas and Bhārgavas respectively claimed their descent, are said to have been sons of King Pratardana of Kāśī.²

The country of Kauśāmbī (i.e. Vatsa) is described as follows by the Chinese pilgrim Hsüan Tsang: 'This country is about 6,000 li in circuit, and the capital about 30 li. The land is famous for its productiveness; the increase is very wonderful. Rice and sugarcane are plentiful. The climate is very hot, the manners of the people hard and rough. They cultivate learning and are very earnest in their religious life and in virtue'.

The Anguttara Nikāva speaks of the land of the Vaṃsas as a country which abounded in seven kinds of gems and was consequently regarded as very rich and prosperous. Kauṭilya's Artha-śāstra mentions Vatsa as one of the countries of which the cotton

fabrics were of the very best quality.5

From the earliest times, the Vatsas, as the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa clearly attests, established a monarchical form of government in their land. They formally anointed their kings in accordance with the prescribed Vedic rites, and they are not known to have deviated from this practice at any period of their history. Ordeal by walking through fire was applied as a test of purity of descent of the kings. Capital punishment by impaling on a stake was inflicted on a culprit even for a light offence, as illustrated by the Jātaka story of 'Maṇḍavya with the Peg'. When King Kosambika ruled over Kosambī in the kingdom of Vatsa, a robber committed a theft and, being chased, left the stolen goods near the door of an ascetic named Maṇḍavya, and himself escaped. When the owner of the property came there, he took the ascetic to be the robber, and brought him before the king. The king without enquiry said, 'Off with him,

<sup>Buddhacaryā, pp. 75, 175; Ghosh, Early History of Kauśāmbī, p. 32.
Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., pp. 112-13 and</sup>

² Ray Chaudhuri, *Political History of Ancient India*, 4th Ed., pp. 112-13 and 159. The *Mahābhārata* and the *Harivaṃśa* testify to the close connection between the Vatsas and the Bhargas.

³ Beal, Records of the Western World, I, p. 235. See also Watters, On Yuan Chwang, I, p. 366.

⁴ IV, pp. 252, 256, 260.

Arthaśāstra, Shāma Śāstri's trsl., p. 94.
 Cambridge History of India, I, p. 134.

impale him upon a stake'. Stakes of acacia and nimb wood did not pierce him, so concluding that the ascetic was innocent, the king ordered the stake to be drawn out. This was found to be impossible, however, so at Maṇḍavya's suggestion the stake was cut off with the skin. Thenceforward he was called Maṇḍavya with the Peg. The king asked his pardon and settled him in the royal park.¹

According to the Buddhist legendary tradition, the Vatsa country was among those considered by the Devaputras in the Tusita heaven when a suitable birthplace for the Buddha was under discussion. The defects of the Vatsas and their royal family were then pointed out. For instance, it was said that the Vamsas were rude and rough, and their king an 'Ucchedavādin'; and, finally, it was decided that the royal family of Vatsa was unsuited for the honour of the Buddha's birth.² However, when the Buddha was about to pass away, Ānanda mentioned Kauśāmbī of the Vatsas as one of six great cities suitable for the Buddha's parinibbāna.³

Kauśāmbī, the capital of the Vatsas, is identified by Cunningham with Kosām on the Jumna, about 30 miles south-west of Allahabad. The Cambridge History, following Cunningham, says that Kauśāmbī seems to have been on the south bank of the Jumna, at a point about 400 miles by road from Ujjain, and about 230 miles upstream from Benares. The Chinese pilgrims, Fā-Hien and Hsüan Tsang, give discrepant accounts of the situation of Kauśāmbī. Fā-Hien arrived there from the Deer Park to the north of Benares, after walking north-west for 13 yojanas (about 91 miles), as he says. This would make Kauśāmbī lie to the north or north-west of Prayāga, as St. Martin thinks ; but Hsüan Tsang, who visited Kauśāmbī twice, arrived there by going from Prayāga 'south-west through a forest infested by wild elephants and other fierce animals, and after a journey of above 500 li (about 100 miles).' 7

The question of the site of Kauśāmbī has been much debated, chiefly because of the impossibility of reconciling Cunningham's identification with the descriptions of the Chinese pilgrims. But such descriptions may either have been incorrect originally or may have been subsequently misinterpreted. For instance, there is nothing in the actual records of Hsüan Tsang to suggest that the

¹ Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. IV, pp. 28 foll.

² See the Romantic Legend of Sākya Buddha, p. 28; and Lalitavistara, ed. Lefmann, p. 21.

⁸ Dīgha Nikāya, pp. 146, 169.

⁴ Ancient Geography of India, p. 454. See also Rapson, Ancient India, p. 170.

⁵ Cambridge History, Vol. I, pp. 187-8.

⁶ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. I, pp. 366-7.

⁷ Ibid., p. 365.

distance given was the actual distance between Prayāga and the city of Kauśāmbī. It is likely that the pilgrim went to Kauśāmbī by a roundabout route from Prayāga. The distance and direction of Kauśāmbī from Sārnāth as given by Fā-Hien may be taken as fairly correct. The distance of 13 yojanas (about 90 or 104 miles) is almost the present distance by road from Benares to Kosam. The fact that Fā-Hien placed Kauśāmbī to the north-west of Benares may perhaps be due to his having walked along a road following a north-west direction for some distance.

Vincent Smith considers that the site of Kauśāmbī is to be looked for near the Sutnā railway station in the valley of the Tons river. As for earlier evidence, the *Brāhmaṇas* generally assert that Kauśāmbī stood either on the Ganges or close to it, and the discovery of the name 'Kosāmbimaṇḍala' in an inscription over the gateway of the fort of Khara seems to confirm this, although the south-west bearing from Prayāga or Allahabad as recorded by Hsüan Tsang points unmistakably to the line of the Jumna.²

The Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (XII, 2, 2, 13) mentions Proti Kausurubindi as a pupil undergoing brahmacarya under Uddālaka Āruṇi (of Upaniṣadic fame) and bearing the local epithet of Kauśāmbeya which the commentator Harisvāmin explains as meaning a native of Kauśāmbī.' The Gopatha Brahmaṇa (I, 4, 24) contains the same reference, but the name of Uddālaka's pupil is here given as Predi Kausurubindu. Kosambeyaka, a Prākrit form of Kauśāmbeya, occurs in one of the Bārhut Inscriptions, being employed to mean a person from Kauśāmbī.'

Thus, from the employment of Kauśāmbeya as a local epithet of a person in the *Brāhmaṇas*, it may be safely inferred that the name Kauśāmbī was current as early as the *Brāhmaṇa* age. The Pāli canon abounds in references to Kauśāmbī as a well-known city in N. India, the capital of the Vatsa country of King Udayana. The high antiquity of Kauśāmbī as a royal city is equally proved by traditions not only in the two great Sanskrit Epics and the Purāṇas, but also in the *Vamsatthappakāsinī* (commentary on the *Mahāvaṃsa*). The *Mahābhārata* at attributes the foundation of the city of Kauśāmbī to Prince Kuśāmba, third son of the Cedi king Uparicara Vasu. In the *Rāmāyaṇa* story, however, Prince Kuśāmba is described as the eldest son of an ancient king named Kuśa, who

¹ *J.R.A.S.*, 1898, p. 503.

² For a fuller discussion of the problem, see B. C. Law, Kauśāmbī in Ancient Literature (Memoirs of the Archaeological Survey of India, No. 60).

⁸ Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India (4th Ed.), p. 58.

⁴ Barua and Sinha, Barhut Inscriptions, p. 12.

⁵ Adiparvan (Vangavasi Ed.), Chap. 63, pp. 69-71.

had four sons by his queen Vaidarbhī, the youngest of them being Vasu.¹ According to the *Matsyapurāṇa*, when Hastināpura was swept away by a Ganges flood, the Kuru or Bhārata king Nicakṣu, who was fifth in descent from Parikṣit, the grandson of Arjuna, abandoned Hastināpura and dwelt in Kauśāmbī.² There is, however, no suggestion made in the Purāṇa that Nicakṣu was himself the founder of the city. We are told in McCrindle's *Ptolemy*³ that Kauśāmbī was a famous city on the river Jumna, which became the Pāṇḍu capital after Hastināpura had been swept away by the Ganges, and which was noted as the shrine of the most sacred of all the statues of the Buddha. Its fame began only with the reign of Cakra, the eighth in descent from Arjuna the Pāṇḍava.⁴ It is stated in the Purāṇas that the three sons of Adhisāmakṛṣṇa, named Nirvakta, Nemicakra and Vivakṣu, lived in Kauśāmbī after the destruction of Hastināpura by the inundation of the Ganges.⁵

Several explanations have been suggested to account for the name Kauśāmbī or Kosambī. Different traditions suggest (1) that the city was named after Prince Kuśāmba ⁶; (2) that it was originally the dwelling place of the sage Kosamba ⁷; (3) that the city came to be called Kosambī because when it was founded, numerous Kosamba trees were uprooted on the site, ⁸ or because the town abounded in shady Kosamba trees. ⁹

Indian literature consistently refers to Kauśāmbī as a royal city, i.e. the capital of a kingdom; but in the Si-yu-ki of Hsüan Tsang, Kauśāmbī (Kiao-shang-mi) is represented rather as a country with its capital, which was 'evidently named Kauśāmbī.' ¹⁰ The Chinese pilgrim must have followed the later usage which represented Kauśāmbī as a political unit instead of as a mere city. ¹¹

Kauśāmbī is described in the *Trikāṇḍaśesa* (2, 1, 14) as Vatsapaṭṭana, 'the capital of Vatsa'. In the Buddhist literature, too,

¹ Rāmāyaṇa (Bombay Ed.), I, 32, 1-6.

² Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India (4th Ed.), p. 58.

⁸ McCrindle, Ancient India as described by Ptolemy, p. 72.

⁴ Cunningham, Ancient Geography, p. 301.

⁵ Matsyapurāņa, Chap. 50; cf. Vāyu and Bhāgavata Purāņas.

⁶ See B. C. Law, Kauśāmbī in Ancient Literature, p. 2.

⁷ Paramatthajotikā, Vol. II, p. 300. Aśvaghosa in his Saundarananda Kāvya (B. C. Law's trsl., p. 9) refers to the hermitage (āśrama) of Kuśāmba, where the city of Kauśāmbī was built.

⁸ Papañcasūdanī, Pt. II, pp. 389-90.

⁹ Vividhatīrthakalpa, p. 23.

¹⁰ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, I, pp. 365-6.

¹¹ E.g., Inscription of Yasapāla, dated Samvat 1093 (A.D. 1037)—Kausāmbī is mentioned as Kosambamandala.

¹² Ghosh, Early History of Kauśāmbī, Introd., p. xvii.

Kauśāmbī is described as the capital of the Vatsa country, as also in the Kathāsaritsāgara. The Vividhatīrthakalpa (p. 23) definitely states that the forests of Kauśāmbī were reached along the course of the Kālimdī (i.e. Yamunā or Jumna).2

According to the description in the Suttanipāta of a journey of Bāvarī's disciples from Patitthāna to Rājagaha. Kauśāmbī was one of the halting places on the same high road which led to Sāketa and Śrāvastī. The Vinaya Mahāvagga 8 gives a description of a somewhat different route that lay between Kauśāmbī and Śrāvastī. Kauśambi was the most important entrepôt for both goods and passengers coming to Kośala and Magadha from the south and west. The route from Kauśāmbī to Rājagrha was down the river.4 and Kauśāmbī was also one of the chief stopping places on the way from

Srāvastī to Patitthāna.⁵

Kauśāmbī had great military strength. The remains at Kosam include those of a vast fortress with eastern ramparts and bastions, four miles in circuit, with an average height of 30 to 35 feet above the general level of the country. The fact that the city was an important commercial centre, is indicated by the extraordinary variety of the coins found there.6 Cast coins were issued at the close of the third century by the kingdoms of Kauśāmbī, Ayodhyā and Mathura, some of which bear the names of local kings in the Brāhmī script.7 There is little foreign influence traceable in the die-struck coins, all closely connected in point of style, which were issued during the first and second centuries B.C. from Pañcāla. Avodhvā, Kauśāmbī and Mathurā. A number of these bear Brāhmī Inscriptions. The coins of Kauśāmbī have a tree within a railing on the obverse.8 The coinage of the kings of Kauśambi seems to begin in the third century B.C., and to extend over a period of about 300 years.9

In the Buddha's time, there were four establishments or settlements of the Order in or near Kauśāmbī, each of them having a group of huts under trees. Buddhaghosa informs us that the three banker friends, Ghosita, Kukkuta and Pāvārika, were the great business magnates of Kauśāmbī in the Buddha's time. All of them went on

² Spence Hardy, Manual of Buddhism, p. 501. Cf. Manorathapūranī, I, рр. 306-7.

⁸ Vol. I, p. 352 foll.

⁴ Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 36.

⁵ Ibid., p. 103.

⁶ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 524.

⁷ Brown, Coins of India, p. 19.

⁸ Ibid., p. 20. See also Prācīna Mudrā, p. 105.

⁹ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 525.

elephant-back from Kauśāmbī to Śrāvastī to wait upon the Buddha at Tetavana, and it was at their invitation that the Buddha agreed to visit Kauśāmbī. Each of the bankers built a suitable retreat for the Buddha in the neighbourhood of the city. Regarding Ghositārāma, Hsüan Tsang tells us that it was situated 'outside the city on the south-east side with an Asoka tope over 200 feet high'.1 Within the city, at the south-east angle of it, there were the ruins of an old habitation, the house of Ghosita (Ghosira) the nobleman. In the middle there was a vihāra of the Buddha and a stūpa containing hair and nail relics. There were also ruins of the Tathagata's bathing-house.2 The pilgrim has also left hints as to the location of the remaining two aramas. Kukkutarama was situated to the south-east of Ghositārāma. At the time of his visit, it was 'a two-storeyed building with an old brick upper chamber'.3 Pāvārika's mango-grove was situated to the east of Ghositārāma. where the old foundations of a building were visible.4

Besides the three retreats built by the three bankers, we read of another Buddhist retreat in or near Kauśāmbī, which was known as Badarikārāma.⁵ The Deer Park in Bhesakaļāvana or Kesakaļāvana ⁶ in the neighbourhood of Sumsumāragira, the principal town in the Bhagga province, then ruled by Prince Bodhi as Viceroy, was the other important Buddhist retreat and early centre of Buddhist activity in the Vatsa dominion. The Park evidently belonged to Prince Bodhi, who became an ardent lay supporter of Buddhism. The story of a cordial entertainment of the Buddha and his disciples in the famous 'Lotus Palace' then built by Prince Bodhi is narrated in the Majjhima Nikāya.⁷

In the time of Hsüan Tsang, there were more than ten Buddhist monasteries (in or near Kauśāmbī), but all in utter ruins. The brethren, who were above 300 in number, were adherents of the Hīnayāna system. There were more than fifty deva-temples, and the non-Buddhists were very numerous.⁸

¹ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, I, p. 369. The Aśoka pillar on which Samudragupta recorded the history of his reign is supposed to have been erected originally at Kauśāmbī, which was no doubt honoured at times by the residence of the monarch (see Smith, Early History of India, p. 310, 4th Ed.).

² Beal, Buddhist Records of the Western World, Vol. I, p. 236.

³ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, I, p. 370.

<sup>Ibid., p. 371.
Tipallatthamiga Jātaka (Fausböll, No. 16).</sup>

⁶ Bodhirājakumāra Sutta, Majjhima Nikāya, II, 91; Jātaka (Fausböll), III, 157.

⁷ Vol. II, pp. 91 foll.

⁸ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. I, p. 366. See also Legge, Fā-Hien, p. 96.

The Buddha's favourite retreat at Kauśāmbī was undoubtedly the Ghositārāma where he stayed on several occasions.¹ For instance, we read in the Majjhima Nikāya² that once while the Buddha was staying at the Ghositārāma, he tried to prevent the Kauśāmbīan monks, who were divided into two parties, from quarrelling. From the Surāpāna Jātaka we learn that the Buddha, after staying for a long time at Bhaddavatika, went to Kauśāmbī where he was cordially received by the townsfolk, some of whom invited him to a meal. On this occasion the Buddha condemned the drinking of intoxicants.³ While dwelling at the Badarika monastery in Kauśāmbī, the Buddha related the Tipallatthamiga Jātaka about the elder Rahula.⁴

In the *Dhammapadaṭṭhakathā*,⁵ we read that there lived at Kauśāmbī a householder's son, Kosambivāsī 'Tissathera, who took ordination from the Buddha. One of the Buddha's chief disciples, Ānanda, also delivered several sermons at Kauśāmbī.⁶ Among famous followers of the Buddha who stayed at Ghositārāma were Sāriputta and Upavāṇa.⁶ After the passing away of the Master, and when the First Great Council was over, Mahākaccāyana lived near Kauśāmbī in a forest hermitage with twelve bhikkhus.⁶

Some of the Kosambians entertained a great respect for the Buddha and the Buddhist faith, and were converted; while we are told that others went so far as to enter the Order and attain arahatship,—e.g. Gavaccha the Less. At the time of the Buddha, Sāmāvatī Therī was born in a rich householder's family at Kauśāmbī. She was the favourite friend of Queen Sāmāvatī, wife of King Udayana. After the death of the queen, she was very much grieved, and became a bhikkhuṇī. Her grief was so bitter that she was unable to attain the ariyamagga. Afterwards listening to the instruction of Ānanda, she became free from sorrow by developing insight, and became an arahat. O

When the Vajjian monks carried out the act of excommunication against Yasa, he is said to have risen up into the sky and descended

¹ See, e.g. Vinaya Texts, Pt. II, p. 285; Ibid., Pt. III, p. 233; Majjhima Nikāya, I, pp. 513ff.; Saṃyutta Nikāya, III, pp. 94-5; V, pp. 224, 229-30; Sumaṅgalavilāsinī, Pt. I, pp. 317-19; Cullavagga (Vinaya Texts, Pt. II, pp. 370ff).

² Majjhima Nikāya, I, pp. 320 foll; Vol. III, p. 153.

⁸ Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. I, pp. 360 foll.

⁴ Ibid., Vol. I, pp. 160 foll.; Vol. III, pp. 64 foll. 5 Vol. II, pp. 182-5.

⁶ Sanyutta Nikāya, III, pp. 133 foll.; II, pp. 115 foll.; IV, pp. 113-14. 7 Ibid., V, pp. 76-7.

⁸ See Paramatthadīpanī on the Petavatthu, pp. 140-144.

⁹ Psalms of the Brethren, p. 16. ¹⁰ Therīgāthā Comm., P.T.S., pp. 44-5.

at Kauśāmbī.¹ The *Mahāvaṃsa* tells us, however, that the venerable Yasa is said to have fled from Vaiśālī to Kauśāmbī just before the assembly of the second Buddhist Council.²

The Pārileyyaka forest, where the Buddha is said to have spent one rainy season, and the location of which is unknown, was probably not very far from Kauśāmbī.³ The town of Bhaddavatika which lay on the way from the Pārileyyaka forest to Śrāvastī was another place in the Vatsa kingdom which became associated with the life of the Buddha.⁴ Somewhere in the neighbourhood of Kauśāmbī and Ghositārāma was a cave called Pilakkhaguhā, where a Parivrājaka or wandering ascetic named Sandaka used to live with his 500 followers during the summer season. The venerable Ānanda is said to have converted Sandaka to the Buddhist faith, with all his following.⁵ In the Dīgha Nikāya ⁶ we read that the city of Kauśāmbī was visited by two wanderers named Maṇḍissa and Jāliya, who interviewed the Buddha at Ghositārāma.

The Mahāvaṃsa attests that some 30,000 bhikkhus of the Ghositārāma, headed by Thera Urudhammarakkhita, visited Ceylon in about the first century B.C., during the reign of King Duṭṭha-

gāmaṇi.7

In the second year of the reign of King Kaniska, the Buddhist nun Buddhimitrā or Buddhamitrā installed a Bodhisatṭva image in Kauśāmbī, which was then known to have been 'sanctified by the Buddha's several visits'.

The records of the influence of religion over Vatsa and Kauśāmbī prior to the introduction of Buddhism and Jainism are few and far between. The people were supposed to have been preoccupied with worldly thoughts, but we read even in the *Brāhmaṇas* of hermits such as Proti Kausurubindi who had considerable influence. The main supporters of such hermits were the bankers of Kauśāmbī, all of whom were members of the Vaiśya caste. The introduction of Buddhism, too, was due to the religious tendencies of persons belonging to this caste, as we have seen from the story of the bankers Ghosita, Kukkuṭa, and Pāvārika. According to the Buddhist tradition in the Tibetan *Dulva*, the Buddha visited Kauśāmbī when King Udayana was busy planning a military expedition to the city of Kanakavatī. The appearance of the messenger of peace was naturally

¹ Kern, Indian Buddhism, p. 104.

<sup>Geiger, Mahāvaṃsa, p. 22. See also Vinaya Texts, Pt. III, p. 394.
Saṃyutta Nikāya, III, pp. 94-5.
Jātaka (Fausböll), I, p. 360.</sup>

⁵ Majjhima Nikāya, I, pp. 513 foll. 6 Dīgha Nikāya, I, pp. 157, 159-60. 7 P.T.S., p. 228.

⁸ Dhammapada Comm., I, p. 203.

looked upon and dreaded as the appearance of a bad omen.¹ It was evidently not easy to convert Udayana and members of the royal family to the new faith. There seems to be some truth in the Buddhist legends that the devotion of Queen Sāmāvatī and her attendants, and the martyrdom suffered by them, were greatly instrumental in bringing about a change of heart in Udayana and making him a supporter of Buddhism.² Here again the banker Ghosita is indirectly concerned, for Sāmāvatī was brought up with his family.

The influence of Jainism over Kauśāmbī does not appear to have been extensive. However, Kauśāmbī is known to the Jainas as the sacred place where Vardhamāna Mahāvīra was worshipped even by the Sun and Moon; and where Chandanā attained to Kaivalya. Kauśāmbī is also known to the Jainas as the place hallowed by the birth, career and death of Jina Prabha Sūri. The Pabhosā rock cave was excavated in about the first century B.C. for the residence of the Kāśyapīya arahats.

In the inscription of the goldsmiths of Kauśāmbī, dated Saṃvat 1621 (1565 A.D.) we find that six of them call themselves Vaiṣṇavas, although the record itself contains only the prayers of five leading goldsmiths and of thirteen of their employees to Garreśa and the god Bhairava 'for favour'.

¹ Rockhill, Life of the Buddha, p. 74.

² Dhammapada Comm., I, pp. 208ff.

CHAPTER XXX

THE VĀŢADHĀNAS---THE ĀTREYAS—THE BHARADVĀJAS—THE LAMPĀKAS

THE VĀTADHĀNAS

The Vāṭadhānas are mentioned in the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa, once along with the Vāhlīkas, the Ābhiras, the Aparāntakas and the Śūdras, all grouped in the north-west (LVII, 36), and at another place, along with the Śiviḍas, Dāserakas, Śavadhānas, Puṣkalas, Kairātas, etc., all grouped as peoples of the north (LVII, 44). The Vāyupurāna, erroneously no doubt, reads Vāḍhadhānas (XLV, 115).

That they were a Punjab tribe is also borne out by the evidence of the Mahābhārata. There the Vāṭadhānas are said to be derived from an eponymous king Vāṭadhāna who belonged to the same Krodhavaśa group as the eponymous kings of the Vāhlīkas, Madras and Sauvīras (Ādiparvan, LXVII, 2695-9). The Sabhāparvan locates their country in the western region (XXXI, 1190-1), and the Udyogaparvan seems to suggest that they joined the side of the Kurus in the great Bhārata War (XVIII, 569-601). The people are mentioned elsewhere in the Epics as well, e.g. Sabhāparvan, I, 1826; Udyogaparvan, III, 86; Bhīṣmaparvan, IX, 354 and Droṇaparvan, XI, 398. Vāṭadhāna-dvijas were amongst those who were conquered by Nakula (Sabhāparvan, XXXI, 1190-1).

According to Manu, Vāṭadhāna was the offspring of an outcaste Brāhmaṇa woman (X, 21), but Pargiter points out that this is no doubt an expression of the same arrogance which in later times stigmatised all the Punjab races as outcastes' (Mārkaṇdeya

Purāṇa, p. 312, notes).

THE ĀTREYAS

The Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa list mentions the Ātreyas along with the Bharadvājas, Puṣkalas, Kuśerukas, Lampākas, etc., as peoples of the north (LVII, 39-40). The Matsyapurāṇa reads Atris who are undoubtedly the same as the Ātreyas (CXIII, 43).

The Atreyas are also mentioned in several places in the Mahābhārata. They are represented as a family of Brāhmaṇas dwelling in the Dvaitavana (Vanaparvan, XXVI,971) not far from the Sarasvatī (Vanaparvan, CLXXVII, 12354-62). They are also mentioned in the Bhīṣmaparvan list (IX, 376), and the Harivaṇṣsa

seems to suggest that the people originated from the Rsi Prabhākara of Atri's race (XXXI, 1660-8) whence came the name of the tribe Ātreya.

THE BHARADVĀJAS

What is true of the Ātreyas seems to be equally true of the Bharadvājas or Bhāradvājas. The Mārkaṇḍeya list (LVII, 39-40) mentions the tribe along with the Ātreyas, Puṣkalas, Lampākas, etc., and locates them in the north. They are also mentioned in the Bhīṣmaparvan list (IX, 376) in the same context as that of the Ātreyas; the Great Epic tradition connects Bhāradvāja with the upper Gangetic region near the hills (Ādiparvan, CXXX, 5102-6; CLXVI, 6328-32; Vanaparvan, CXXXV, 10700-28; Salyaparvan, XLIX, 2762-2824), and Bhāradvāja, the Rṣi, was evidently the originator of the race or tribe. Like the Ātreyas, it is tempting to connect the people of various caste divisions of present-day India claiming to belong to the Bhāradvāja gotra with the Bhāradvāja tribe.

THE LAMPĀKAS

The Lampākas are mentioned in the Mārkaṇḍeya list (LVII, 40) along with the Kuśerukas, Śūlakāras, Culikas, Jāguḍas, etc. as a people of the north. The Matsyapurāṇa reads (CXIII, 43) Lampākas instead, which is no doubt wrong. The Mahābhārata (Droṇaparvan, CXXI, 4846-7) also mentions the tribe and seems to suggest that they were a rude mountain tribe like the Daradas and Pulindas. Long ago Cunningham identified the region of the Lampākas with modern Lamphan, hundred miles to the east of Kapisene, northeast of Kabul, which practically upholds Lassen's identification of the place with Lambagae, south of the Hindu Kush in modern Kafiristan.

If the tradition contained in Hemacandra's Abhidhāna-cintāmaṇi is to be believed, then Lampāka seems to have once been the centre of the Sai-wang or the Saka-Muraṇḍa people (Lampākāstu Murandāh syuh).

CHAPTER XXXI

THE YONAS

The Yonas or Yavanas, literally 'Ionians', a people or peoples of Greek descent, may be traced in Indian literature and inscriptions¹ from the third century B.C. to the second century A.D. They were 'manifestly a factor of no small importance in the political history of Northern and Western India'.²

In the Mahābhārata we find them taking part in the Bhārata War at Kuruksetra as allies of the Kurus along with other peoples of North-Western India like the Kāmbojas, Šakas, Madras, Kaikeyas, Sindhus and Sauvīras.³ Indian tradition, however, regards them as aliens or outcastes. Thus the Sūtras mention the Yavanas (Greeks) as the most esteemed of foreigners, but all Yavanas are regarded as sprung from Sūdra females and Ksatriya males. Gautama says that this view is held by some.4 The Rāmāyana 5 refers to the struggles of the Hindus with mixed hordes of Sakas and Yavanas (cf. Sakān Yavanamiśritān). In the Kiskindhyā Kānda (IV, 43, 11-12), Sugriva places the country of the Yavanas and the cities of the Sakas between the country of the Kurus and the Madras and the Himālayas.6 In the Mahābhārata, the Yonas or Yaunas are classed with other peoples of Uttarapatha or Northern India like the Kāmbojas, Gandhāras, Kirātas and Barbaras, In the Mārkandeva Purāna, we also find a list of peoples where the Gabalas or Yavanas are classed with some other people of Northern or North-Western India like the Gandhāras, Sindhu-Sauvīras and Madrakas. of Gabalas, the Vāvu and the Matsya Purānas read Yavanas which seems to be the correct reading.8 The Yonas or Yavanas thus seem to be one of the ancient tribes settled in some part of India. Yona or Greek State is, therefore, mentioned along with Kamboja

¹ Indian Culture, Vol. I, pp. 343 foll.

² Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 225.

³ Ibid., p. 274.

⁴ Gautama Dharmaśāstra, IV, 21; Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, 240 f.n.

⁵ 1, 54, 21.

⁶ Political History of Ancient India (4th Ed.), p. 3.

⁷ Cf. Uttarāpathajanmānah Kīrtayīshyāmi tān api Yauna Kāmboja Gāndhārāh Kirātā Barbaraih saha. Mbh., XII, 207, 43.

⁸ Cf. Gāndhārā Yavanaścaiva Sindhu-Sauvīra-Madrakāḥ (Mārkandeya Purāṇa, Chap. 57, 36).

in the *Majjhima Nikāya* (II, 149) as flourishing in the time of Gautama Buddha and Assalāyana.¹

The Milinda-Pañho refers to the land of the Yonas as the place fit for the attainment of *Nibbāna* (Trenckner ed., p. 327). Mahāvastu speaks of the assembly of the Yonas where anything which was decided was binding on them (Vol. I, p. 171). Hence D. R. Bhandarkar in his Carmichael Lectures 2 observes that there is nothing strange in Pānini flourishing in the sixth century B.C. and in his referring also to Yavanānī, the writing of the Greeks. When Alexander invaded India he found a large number of autonomous tribes and principalities in the North-Western Frontier Province and the Punjab. Among these we find mention of the Nysaeans forming a small hill-state with a republican constitution. They had Adouphis then as their President and they had a Governing Body of three hundred members. Holdich in discussing the site of Nysa 8 shows that the lower spurs and valleys of Koh-i-Mor are where the ancient city of Nysa once stood. According to Bhandarkar,4 Nysa was situated between the Kophen and the In the Fifth Book of Arrian's work, we find two relevant passages in this connection. Arrian says, 'The Nysaeans are not an Indian race, but descended from the men who came into India with Dionysus.'6 The deputies of Nysa, who waited upon Alexander, themselves told the Macedonian monarch that their city was founded by Dionysus; for Dionysus, the Greeks believed, had gone conquering across Asia, at the head of his revellers, in the old heroic days. Greeks'. Bevan says, 'always experienced a keen joy of recognition. when they could connect foreign things with the figures of their own legends, and they were delighted with the suggestion.' legend the name Nysa was specially connected with Dionysus—it was the name of his nurse, or of the place where he was born or of his holy hill—and the name of this little town in the Hindu Kush, as it was pronounced to Alexander, had a similar sound. Again the legend said that Dionysus had been born from the thigh (mēros) of Zeus, and a neighbouring summit, the Greeks discovered, was called Meru. When, moreover, the Greeks saw the sacred plants of the same god, viz. vine and ivy (which grew nowhere else in the land of the Indians), running wild over the mountain, as they knew them at home, no doubt could be left. So hostilities with these interesting kinsmen

¹ Cf. Yona Kambojesu . . . dveva vaņņā, ayyo c'eva dāsoca.

² 1921, p. 29.
³ Gates of India, p. 122.

⁴ Carmichael Lectures, 1921, p. 32.

⁵ Cf. McCrindle's Ancient India: its invasion by Alexander the Great, pp. 79-80.

⁶ Chinnock's edition, p. 399.

⁷ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 354.

could not be thought of, and the Nysaeans themselves joined with Alexander. Three hundred of them on their mountain horses joined the army of the Yavana king and followed him to battle in the plains of the Punjab.1 The evidence furnished by Arrian's account of Nysa shows that Nysa was a Greek colony before the advent of Alexander to India.2 In the inscription of Aśoka,8 we find mention of the Yonas along with Kāmbojas.4 The question here arises—Who were these Yonas? Bhandarkar in his Carmichael Lectures, 1921 (pp. 28ff.), points out that it is impossible to identify the Yonas of Rock Edict XIII with the Greeks of Bactria because the same edict was promulgated when Antiochus Theos, King of Syria, was living, his name being actually specified therein. Aśoka's time Bactria was included in the Syrian empire of Antiochus Theos. We learn from Greek historians, Trogus, Justin and Strabo, that it was Diodotus who first made Bactria independent. He was a Satrap of this province under Antiochus Theos. The death of Antiochus probably caused disturbance when Diodotus made himself independent in Bactria. So the Yonas of the Aśokan inscription are to be located elsewhere. Bhandarkar therefore concludes: 'I suspect that it has to be identified with Aria or Arachosia which were the two provinces ceded by Seleucuos to Chandragupta and which must have been inherited intact by Aśoka. I admit it is not possible to locate these Yonas exactly, but this much is certain that they were outside the kingdom of Antiochus Theos, and lived in Aśoka's empire in a territory adjoining Gandhāra but outside India.'5 Bhandarkar therefore holds the view that in all likelihood, the Yavanas of Rock Edict XIII must have come and settled in large numbers in some outlying province of India long before Alexander. Numismatic evidence also lends support to such a view. Coins similar to those of the earliest type of Athens are known to have been collected from the north-west frontiers of India. head of Athena on the obverse and owls on the reverse. These owls of Athens have been picked up in Southern Arabia Felix. But none of the owls found in the east are of the types known from Athens. The coins found in Arabia might have travelled there as a result of commercial intercourse, for they are generally counter-marked on the obverse with Sabaean letters or are scratched on the reverse with a

¹ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 354.

² Carmichael Lectures, 1921, p. 32.

8 Rock Edict XIII.

⁴ Cf. 'Yona-Kamboyeshu Nabhake Na(bhi)tina Bhoja-Pitinikeshu Amdhra-Puli(de) shu savatra devanam priyasa dhramanusasti anuvatamti.' (Shabhazgarhi text—Inscriptions of Asoka, edited by Bhandarkar and Majumdar, pp. 53-4.)

⁶ Carmichael Lectures, 1921, p. 26. ⁶ Ibid., p. 27.

⁷ Numismatic Chronicle, XX, 191.

Sabaean monogram. Bhandarkar argues when a foreign money for the first time comes into circulation along with the native coinage of a country, all the new specimens are tested, and those, which are found not deficient in weight or quality of metal, are sanctioned by marking them with an official stamp which may consist of a single letter or symbol. These official stamps which are found on the owls of Athens, discovered in South Arabia, are conspicuous by their absence on those found on the frontiers of India. The practice of putting such counter-marks on coins was not unknown in or near India also, for the silver Persian sigloi which were current in the Punjab bear Indian counter-marks. When there is no countermark, it is not reasonable to say that they were brought there in course of trade. Bhandarkar 2 therefore concludes: 'The natural inference must be that they were native to some outlying district of India which was peopled by the Yavanas or Greeks. And as the original owls of Athens have been assigned to circa 594-560 B.C., a Greek colony, it is possible to infer, may have been established near India about 550 B.C.' Ray Chaudhuri's also notes that the exact situation of the Yona territory has not yet been determined. In the Mahāvamsa (XII) we find that the Thera Mahārakkhita was sent to the country of the Yonas. This work also refers to its chief city, Alasanda, which Geiger identifies with the town of Alexandria founded by the Macedonian conqueror near Kabul.4 Not only the Yonas are mentioned in the inscriptions of Aśoka, we also find a Yavana official or a vassal Yavanarāja called Tushāspha ruling as governor of Surastra with his capital at Girinagara (Girnar) during the days of Aśoka, as we learn from the Junagadh Rock Inscription of Mahākshatrapa Rudradāman. Vincent Smith argues that the form of the name shows that the Yavanaraja must have been a Persian. But Ray Chaudhuri contends that if Greeks and other foreigners adopted Hindu names there is no wonder that some of them assumed Iranic appellations. There is, then, no good ground for assuming that Tushāspha was not a Greek, but a Persian. After the death of Aśoka, a Yavana army crossed the Hindu Kush, which was the northern frontier of Aśokan empire on the ruins of which an Indo-Greek kingdom arose. The Yuga Purāna section of the Gārgī Samhitā points to the decline of Maurya power in the Madhyadeśa when it says: 'Tataḥ Sāketam ākramya Pañcālaṃ Mathurāmstathā · Yavanah dustavikrāntah prāpsvati Kusuma-

¹ J.R.A.S., 1895, 874 and ff.

² Carmichael Lectures, 1921, p. 29.

³ Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 253. 4 Mahāvamsa, Geiger's translation, p. 194.

dhvajam | Tatah Puspapure prāpte Karddame prathite hite | Ākulā visayā sarve bhavisyanti na samśayah 11 In Patañjali's Mahābhāsva there is a similar line: 'Arunad Yavanah Sāketam: Arunad Yavano Madhyamikām.' According to Sir R. G. Bhandarkar this shows that a certain Yavana or Greek prince had besieged Sāketa or Avodhyā and another place called Madhyamikā (near Chitor) when Patañjali wrote this. Kālidāsa in his Mālavikāgnimitram refers to a conflict between the Sunga prince Vasumitra and a Yavana on the southern bank of the Sindhu. The name of this invader, however, is not given in the Mahābhāsya or the Mālavikāgnimitram.² It is clear at any rate that the extension of Yavana power to the interior of India was thwarted in the first instance by the Sungas. In Western India the rising power of the Andhras, Andhrabhrtvas Sātavāhanas caused the last vestige of Yavana power to disappear. Thus from the Nāsik Cave Inscription of Gautamīputra Śātakarni we learn that he destroyed the Sakas, Yavanas and Pahlayas. While in the north-west of India the Yavanas were swept away by the onrush of the Parthians or Pahlavas, as we learn from Chinese sources.

¹ Kern, Brhatsamhitā, p. 37.

² Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 316.

CHAPTER XXXII

THE KALINGAS

The Kalingas as a tribe are almost always associated with the Angas and Vangas in ancient Indian literature. These three tribes along with the Pundras and Suhmas are said to have been named after the five sons of Bali, Anga, Vanga, Kalinga, Pundra and Suhma who were called Bāleva Ksatra and also Bāleva Brāhmanas.¹ These five tribes evidently then lived conterminously and had their distinct entities within respective geographical boundaries to which they gave the names of their respective tribes. The tradition referred to above is contained in the Puranas and the Great Epic, according to which, the sage Dirghatamas had married King Bali's Sudra nurse and had Kaksivant and other sons; and at Bali's desire begot on the queen Sudesnā the aforesaid five sons. According to the Great Epic again,2 King Jarasandha is said to have extended his supremacy over the Angas, Vangas, Kalingas and the Pundras. In the Dronaparvan, Vasudeva is said to have once routed in battle the Angas, Vangas, Kalingas and the Paundras along with other peoples. A town named Kalinganagara, evidently one of the cities of the Kalinga people, is mentioned in the Rāmāyana, on the west of the Gomatī and not far from it.4 A Kalinga tribe is also referred to in the Mārkandeya Purāna 5 as having their settlement on the Satadru. Pargiter suggests that the reading is erroneous, for there seems to be no ground for thinking that the Kalingas lived in N. India.6 Moreover, the Vāyupurāṇā in the same context reads Kulindas instead, which seems to be the correct reading. The Markandeya Purana 8 mentions another people named the Arkalingas along with the Kuntalas, Kāśīs, Kośalas, Atharvas and the Malakas. doubts this reading as well, because of the Vāyupurāṇa reading which is different in the same context. The Matsyapurāna reads Avantas and Kalingas instead, 10 but this is also hardly satisfactory in view of the fact that the Kalingas are hardly known to have been associated with the Avantas and moreover that the Kalingas are elsewhere

¹ Puranic tradition as contained in a number of Purānas, the *Mahābhārata* and the *Harivaṃśa*. See the Dirghatamasa story and its sequel. Compare Pargiter, A.I.H.T., p. 158.

² Mahābhārata, XII, Chap. 5, 6607.

⁴ Ayodhyā K., LXXIII, 14, 15.
⁶ Mārkandeya Purāņa, p. 316 n.

⁸ LVII, 33. 9 Mārkandeya Purāna, p. 308 n.

³ *Ibid.*, Chap. 10, 15.

⁵ LVII, 37.

 ⁷ XLV, 116.
 10 CXIII, 36.

described not only in the same Purāṇa but also in other Purāṇas as a people of the southern region. The Mārkaṇḍeya, for example, says that they dwelt in the southern region along with the Mahārāṣṭras, Mahiṣakas, Ābhīras, Vaiśikyas, Savaras, Pulindas and others.¹ A number of famous Kaliṅga or Kāliṅga kings are mentioned in the Ādiparva of the Mahābhārata² and they are credited with having contracted matrimonial relations with princesses of the Aryan royal families of the north (e.g. Ādiparvan, XCV, 3774-5, 3780; Dronaparvan, LXX, 2436). According to epic evidence as contained in the Mahābhārata,³ the Kaliṅga country comprised the entire tract of country lying along the coast of Vaitaraṇī in Orissa to the borders of the Āndhra country.⁴

The country of the Kalingas is mentioned by Pāṇini.⁵ According to Baudhāyana, the country was branded as an impure one and was included in his list of Saṃkīrṇa yonayaḥ.⁶ According to Kauṭilya's Arthaśāstra,⁷ elephants of Anga and Kalinga belonged to the best of their types, while those of Karūṣa, Daśārṇa and Aparānta were only second in order of classification, those of the Saurāṣṭras and allied tribes (Saurāṣṭrikāh pañcajanāh) having been the worst.

The Jatakas contain a number of references to the Kalinga country and its kings. Thus, for example, according to the Kumbhakāra Jātaka, Karandu was a Kalinga and he was a contemporary of Nimi, king of Videha. The Mahāgovinda Suttanta makes Sattabhū, king of Kalinga, a contemporary of Renu, king of Mithilā and of Dhatarattha or Dhrtarāstra, king of Kāśī and Anga. The Jatakas also refer to the capital city of Kalinga which was Dantapuranagara which is probably identical with Dantakura mentioned in the *Mahābhārata*, Dantapura of inscriptions. Other cities of the Kalinga country are also known, e.g. Rājapura, 10 Simhapura, 11 which is probably identical with Singupuram near Chicacole, 12 Kāncanapura of the Jainas, 13 and Kalinganagara which has been identified with Mukhalingam on the river Vamsadharā.14 Kalinga (Kālinga) is mentioned in the Niddesa. 15 From Kalinga the Buddha's tooth was brought to Ceylon at the time of King Sirimeghavanna. A Kalinga king picked up a quarrel with Aruna, the Assaka king of Potali, but was defeated and had to surrender. 16

¹ LVII, 46.7. ² LXVII, 2701. ⁸ III, 114, 4. 4 Ray Chaudhuri, P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., p. 75. 5 IV, 1, 170. 6 I, i, 30-1. 7 II. 2. 8 V, 48–76. ⁹ Epigraphia Indica, XIV, p. 361. 10 Mahābhārata, XIII, 4, 3. 11 Mahāvastu, Senart's Ed., p. 432. 12 Dubreuil, A.H.D., p. 94. 18 Indian Antiquary, 1891, p. 375. 14 Epigraphia Indica, IV, 187. 15 Cullaniddesa, ii, 37. 16 Jātaka (Fausböll), III, 3f.

Susīmā, a Kaliṅga princess, was married to a king of Vaṅga.¹ Vijayabāhu I married a Kaliṅga princess named Tilokasundarī.² Māgha, a prince of Kaliṅga, did a great mischief to Ceylon.³ Asoka's brother Tissa spent his retirement in the Kaliṅga country with his teacher Dhammarakkhita.⁴

Important light on the history of the Kalinga people is thrown by Pliny, the classical historian. From the accounts of Diodoros Curtius and Plutarch, we know that at the time of Alexander's invasion, there were two very powerful peoples in the lower Gangetic valley, the Parasii (Braisioi) and the Gangaridai whose king was Xandrammes or Agrammes. The capital city of the Prasii was Palibothra or Pāṭaliputra, while that of the Gangridai was Gange at the mouth of the Ganges, according to the author of the Periplus of the Erythraean Sea, or at the junction of the Ganges leading to the Maga and Kamberikhon mouths respectively. Pliny adds a third important people of E. India at that time, namely the Kalingas. He says: 'The tribes called Kalingas are nearest the sea, and higher up are the Mandaei and the Malli, in whose country is mount Mallus, the boundary of all that district being the Ganges . . . the final part of its course is through the country of the Gangaridaes. The royal city of Kalinga is called Parthalis. Over their king 60,000 foot-soldiers, 1,000 horsemen and 7,000 elephants keep watch and ward.' An alternative reading of Pliny's text makes Gangaridae-Kalinga one people, having a king, a capital city, and an army of their own. Pliny further mentions two more tribes which must have been allied with the Kalinga people proper, e.g. the Maccokalingae (cf. modern Mukhalingam referred to above, or is it Mukhya Kalingah, the main Kalingas?) and the Modokalinga, both inhabiting an island in the Ganges. The capital city Parthalis of the Kalingae has been identified with Pūrvasthali, a large village about 20 miles from the present Burdwan town,⁵ which, however, is not above criticism. In any case, from the description of Pliny, it is certain that the countries of the Gangaridae and the Kalingae were adjacent territories.

Agrammes or Xandrammes has been usually identified with Mahāpadma Nanda who was king of both Prasii and Gangaridae. Mahāpadma was supplanted by Candragupta Maurya who is referred to by Greek writers as having been king of Prasii but nowhere is he mentioned as king of Gangaridae as well. The well-known Kalinga expedition of Aśoka was, perhaps, directed against a probable

¹ Mahāvaṃsa, VI, I; Dīpavaṃsa, IX, 2ff.

² Cūlavamsa, LIX, 30.

⁴ Theragāthā Commentary, I, 506.

³ Ibid., LXXX, 58f.

⁵ *I.H.Q.*, IV, p. 55.

Kalingae-Gangaridae combination of forces, suggested by an alternative reading of Pliny referred to above. In any case, the Kalinga resistance must have been a very stiff one, as is evident from the description in the thirteenth Rock Edict.

Kalinga is again lifted to historical prominence when Khāravela of the Ceta dynasty became anointed, when he had completed his twenty-fourth year, as Mahārāja of Kalinga. In his Hathigumpha Cave Inscription Kalinga finds mention for more than once and it is said in that very inscription that in the first year of his reign he repaired the gates and ramparts of his capital Kalinganagara identified with Mukhalingam.

We do not hear of the Kalingas or their country, so far at least as N. India history is concerned, for a long time, in fact not until we reach the time when Yuan Chwang visited the country in about the second quarter of the seventh century A.D. Kālidāsa, however, in his Raghuvamsam mentions both Utkala and Kalinga, from which it is evident that they were two distinct countries. Yuan Chwang travelled from Odra to Kangoda whence he travelled through jungle and forest, dense with huge trees, south-west for 1,400 or 1,500 li, to Kalinga (Ka-long-ka). According to him, 'the country was above 5,000 li in circuit, its capital being above 20 li. There were regular seed-time and harvest, fruits and flowers grew profusely, and there were continuous woods for some hundreds of li. The country produced dark wild elephants prized by neighbouring countries. climate was hot . . . The people were . . . fast and clear in speech; in their talk and manners they differed somewhat from "Mid-India". There were few Buddhists, the majority of the people being of other There were above ten Buddhist monasteries, and 500 religions. brethren students of the Mahāyānist Sthavira School System. There were more than 100 Deva temples, and the professed adherents of the various sects were very numerous, the majority being nirgranthas.'1

Earlier, however, by about two centuries (i.e. fifth century A.D.) there is the well-known Komarti grant ² which introduces us to a Śrī Mahārāja named Candravarman who is described as Kaliṅgā-dhipati (lord of Kaliṅga). To his dynasty, probably, also belonged Umavarman and Viśākhavarman who were both evidently lords of Kaliṅga. To about the same date as that of the Komarti grant, may be ascribed the inscription of a certain Kaliṅgādhipati Vāśiṣṭhīputra Śaktivarman of the Māṭhara family who granted from Piṣṭapura (= Pithāpuram) the village of Rākaluva in the Kaliṅga-

¹ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. II, p. 198.

² Sewell, Historical Inscriptions of Southern India, p. 18.

viṣaya.¹ In the Aihole Inscriptions (634-35 A.D.) Pulakesin II claims to have subdued the Kalingas along with the Kośalas and took the fortress of Piṣṭapura.² One at least of the Vākāṭaka kings is credited with having conquered the Andhra and Kalinga countries; he was Hariṣena, the father-in-law of Mādhavavarman the Viṣṇukundin.³ Towards the middle of the seventh century Kalinga seems to have come, for a time at least, under the sway of Kāmarūpa. One of her kings, Harṣadeva or Śrī Harṣa, is described in a contemporary Nepalese inscription to have been the king of Gauḍa, Odra, Kalinga, Kośala and other countries.⁴

Another reference to Kalinga we find in the Bheraghat Inscription of Alhanadevi, the queen of Gayā-Karna of the Kalacuri dynasty, the grandson of the famous Lakṣmīkarna. It informs us that when Lakṣmīkarna gave full play to his heroism, Vanga trembled with Kalinga.⁵ King Rāmapāla of the Pāla dynasty also seems to have inflicted a defeat on Kalinga as well as on Utkala and Kāmarūpa.⁶ King Vijayasena of the Sena dynasty is credited with having inflicted a defeat on the Kalingas whose king at that time was evidently Rāghava.⁷ The Madhainagar grant of Lakṣmaṇasena informs us that the Gauḍeśvara (i.e. Lakṣmaṇa) in his youth took his pleasures with the females of Kalinga.

The reference to Trikalinga in some of the old records is very interesting. The S. Indian dynasties that ruled in the northern districts of Madras, C.P., and Orissa assumed the title 'Lord of Trikalinga' or 'Trikalingādhipati'.⁸ Kalinga, evidently in a narrow sense, has always been distinguished in literature and sometimes also in epigraphs from Odra and Utkala and Kośala; but we must also take the Puranic statement into consideration that the Amarakanṭaka hill was situated in the western half of Kalinga (Kalingadeśe paścārdhe parvate Amarakanṭake). Mention may also be made in this connection to Pliny's reference to three Kalingas in his time, already mentioned: (i) the Gangaridae-Calingae, the Kalingas who lived conterminously with the Gangaridae, (2) the Macco-Calingae, either the Mekala-Kalingas or (Macco = Muka =

¹ Ep. Ind., XII, pp. 1ff.

² *Ibid.*, VI, pp. 4ff.

⁸ J.R.A.S., 1914, p. 137. ⁴ Ind. Ant., 1880, Vol. IX, p. 179; J.R.A.S., 1898, pp. 384-5; I.H.Q., 1927, p. 841.

⁵ Ep. Ind., Vol. II, p. 11.

⁶ Rāmacarita, II, 45 and 47.

⁷ Deopara Inscription.

⁸ E.g., the Sonpur grant of Mahāsivagupta Yayāti where the king is described

⁸ E.g., the Sonpur grant of Mahāsivagupta Yayāti where the king is described as such. The same king is described in one of his grants as having been elected king of Kalinga, Kangoda, Utkala and Kośala. Kangoda is certainly the Kung-Yū-t'u of Yuan Chwang, when the pilgrim went to Kaleng-ka, cf. the Narasapatam grant of Trikalingādhipati Vajrahastadeva.

three) the Muka-Kalingas (perhaps identical with Mukhalingam) and (3) the Calingae proper. The word Tilang which we meet with in some Arabic records¹ evidently is a corruption of this Trikalinga which is also responsible for the term Talaing used to designate the ancient people of Lower Burma or Ramaññadeśa who must have originally migrated from the Trikalinga countries. The term Kling applied to the people of Malay Peninsula must have originally been derived from Kalinga which seems to have been the original home of the Kling people.

¹ E.g., see Elliot, History of India as told by her own Historians, Vol. III, p. 234.

CHAPTER XXXIII

THE ANDHRAS

The earliest mention of the Andhras as a tribe is to be found along with the Śavaras, Pulindas and probably also the Mūtibas, in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa where all these tribes are referred to as dasyus or non-Aryans.¹ In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa also, the Andhras are mentioned along with the Puṇḍras, Śavaras, Pulindas and the Mūtibas.² Vincent Smith is of opinion that the Andhras were a Dravidian-speaking people and were evidently the progenitors of the modern Telegu-speaking people occupying the deltas of the Godāvarī and the Kṛṣṇā,³ while P.T.S. Iyangar also holds that the Andhras were originally a Vindhyan tribe that extended its political power from the west gradually to the east down the Godāvarī and the Kṛṣṇā valleys.⁴ That the Andhras were indigenous to the Deccan is attested to by both the epics; the Mahābhārata says that they were Dakṣiṇā-patha-janmānaḥ, while the Rāmāyaṇa connects them with the Godāvarī:

Dakṣiṇā-patha-janmānaḥ sarve naravarāndhrakāḥ, Guhāḥ Pulindāḥ Śavarāś Cukukā Madrakaiḥ (?) saha. (Mbh., XII, 207, 42.)

Nadīm Godāvarīm caiva sarvamevānupasyatah, Tathaivāndhrāmsca Puṇḍrāmsca coļān Pāṇḍrāmscakebalān. (Rām., Kish. Kān., 41, Chap. 11.)

That the Andhras occupied the Godāvarī-Kṛṣṇā valley is further upheld by one of the earliest records of the Pallava dynasty that flourished in the Andhra region. The Mayidavolu plates of the early Pallava ruler Śivaskandavarman prove that the Andhrāpatha or the region of the Andhras embraced the Kṛṣṇā district with Dhaññakada or Bezwada as its capital.⁵

The Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa 6 mentions in the list of peoples inhabiting the eastern countries a tribe called the Andhrarakas which is substituted by the Andhravākas. 7 But both seem to be misreadings for the Andhras who were always a people of the southern regions, as also in view of the fact that the same Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa

¹ Aitareya Br., VII, 18.

² 'Antān vah prajāh takṣiṣṭa iti, etc. Andhrāh Puṇḍrāh Śavarāh Pulindāh Mūtibāh iti uddyantāh vahaboh bhavanti.'

³ Ind. Ant., 1913, pp. 276-8.

⁴ *Ibid.*, 1918, p. 71.

7 XLV, 122.

⁵ Ep. Ind., VI, p. 88.

⁶ Canto LVII, 42.

places a people called the Andhas along with the Maulikas, Aśmakas, Bhogavardhanas, Naiṣikas, Kuntalas, etc., in the southern region. The reading Andhas is also corrected in the Vāyupurāna as Andhras. These peoples are mentioned in the Mahābhārata in the Udyogaparvan and Bhīṣmaparvan as Andhakas and Andhras respectively. According to the Sabhāparvan and Vanaparvan, the Andhas or Āndhras were a rude uncivilised people.

The earliest epigraphic mention of the Andhra people is made in some of the edicts (XIII, R.E.) of Aśoka where the Andhras, Palidas (Pāladas, Parimdas = the Pulindas, or the Pāradas), Bhojas and Rāṭhikas (Rāṣṭrikas) are said to have been vassal tribes of the great Maurya. The Andhra people are also referred to by Pliny who says that the Andarae or Andhras possessed a very large number of villages, thirty towns defended by walls and towers, and supplied their king with an army of 100,000 infantry, 2,000 cavalry and 1,000 elephants.⁵

The founder of the great Sātavāhanas, Simuka, who is credited by the Purāṇas to have assailed the Kāṇvāyanas and destroyed the remains of the Sunga power in about the first century B.C. is said to have started a dynasty that ruled over the Dakṣiṇāpatha, for about 250 years. The Sātavāhanas are claimed by the Purāṇas to have been Andhras or Andhrabhṛtyas. The exact significance of this appellation cannot, however, be determined but doubtless they ruled over the whole of Andhradeśa and the adjoining regions.

In the Harāhā Inscription of the Maukhari king Kumāragupta III (554 A.D.) a certain 'lord of the Andhras' (Andhrādhipati) is said to have given the Maukhari king a great trouble by his 'thousands of three-fold rutting elephants'. Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhuri suggests that the Andhra king referred to was probably Mādhavavarman (I, Javāśraya) of the Polamuru plates belonging to the Viṣṇukuṇḍin family. This suggestion seems to be in agreement with the fact that the Jaunpur Inscription of Īśvaravarman, father of Īśānavarman Maukhari, refers to victory over the Andhras on behalf of Īśvaravarman. The Vākāṭaka king Harisena, father-in-law of Mādhavavarman of the Viṣṇukuṇḍin family referred to above, also claims to have conquered the Andhra and Kalinga regions.

The Ikṣvākus succeeded the Sātavāhanas in the rule of the Andhra region where almost all the records of the dynasty have

¹ LVII, 48-9. ² XLV, 127.

³ XVIII, 586 and X, 357 respectively.
4 IV, 119; XXX, 1175; XXXIII, 1270 and Vanaparvan, LI, 1988.

⁵ Ind. Ant., 1877, p. 339.

6 Ep. Ind., XIV, pp. 110ff.

7 P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., p. 509.

8 C.I.I., 1II, p. 230.

⁹ J.R.A.S., 1914, p. 137.

been found. At the time of Pallava Śivaskandavarman, the Andhrāpatha or the Andhra country seems to have come under the sway of the Pallava dynasty whose headquarters at this time were at Dhamnakada (Dhānya-kaṭaka). According to the Purāṇas, the Andhra (i.e. the Sātavāhana) dynasty had five different branches.¹ In fact, one of these five branches, namely, the Cutusātakarṇi branch, is known from inscriptions, coins and literary references to have ruled in the Kuntala country before the Kadambas.² The Vāyu-purāṇa in the same context referred to above mentions the Ābhiras who ruled after the Andhras (i.e. the Sātavāhanas).

In about the second quarter of the seventh century A.D., the celebrated Chinese pilgrim Hsüan Tsang visited the An-to-lo or the Andhra country. The nearest transcription of An-to-lo is Andara which is comparable to Pliny's Andarae referred to above, though doubtless it means the Andhra country. From Kosala (evidently South Kośala), the pilgrim travelled south, through a forest, for above 900 li to the An-to-lo country which 'had a rich fertile soil with a moist hot climate; the people were of violent character; their mode of speech differed from that of "Mid-India", but they followed the same system of writing. There were twenty odd Buddhist monasteries with more than 3,000 brethren. Near the capital was a large monastery with a succession of high walls and storeyed terraces...'.3

The name of the capital of the country as given by the pilgrim was Ping-ki-lo which does not seem to have as yet been correctly identified, though Cunningham sought to equate it with Warangal.

We have seen above that in the time of Pallava Sivaskandavarman, Dhāryakaṭaka was the capital of the Andhrāpatha, but Hsüan Tsang seems to refer to Dhānyakaṭaka as a region separate from Andhra. The pilgrim proceeds to relate that from Andhra he continued his journey south, through wood and jungle, for over 1,000 li, and reached the Te-na-ka-che-ka country which was above 6,000 li in circuit, and its capital was above 40 li in circuit. Te-na-ka-che-ka has been equated with Dhānyāyakaṭaka or Dhanakaṭaka.4

¹ E.g. Vāyu P., 99, 358. 'Andhrānām samsthitāh panca teshām vamsāh samāh punah.'

² Sircar, Successors of the Sātavāhanas, pp. 218ff. For a summary of the historical vicissitudes of Andhradeśa after the Sātavāhanas, see *ibid.*, pp. 3-5 of the introduction.

⁸ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. II, p. 209.

⁴ Watters, *ibid.*, Vol. II, pp. 214ff. But there are scholars who hold that Yuan Chwang's description of the city and its surroundings does not suit the identification. Fergusson, Burgess and Sewell therefore locate the city at Bezwada. Cunningham, A.G.I., Majumdar's Ed., notes, p. 737.

'The country had a rich soil and yielded abundant crops; there was much waste land and the inhabited towns were few; the climate was warm, and the people were of black complexion, violent disposition, and fond of the arts. There was a crowd of Buddhist monasteries but most of them were deserted, about 20 being in use, with 1,000 brethren mostly adherents of the Mahāsaṅghika system. There were about 100 Deva temples and the followers of the various sects were numerous...'

Stray references to the Andhra country and people are made in later epigraphic records as well. Thus the Indian Museum inscription of the ninth year of Nārāyaṇapāladeva of the Pāla dynasty refers to the Andhra-vaiṣayika Sākyabhikṣu Sthavīra Dharmamitra who erected an image, evidently of the Buddha.

The Pāli Buddhist literature is not wanting in references to the Andhras. The *Apadāna*, a book of the Pāli Canon, mentions Andhakas along with the Muṇḍakas, Kolakas and Cīnas who came to show respect to a banker's son named Jatukannika in the town of Hamsavatī.

A young brahmin after completing his education at Takkasīlā (Taxila), then a great seat of learning, came to the Andhra country to profit by practical experience.² Assaka and Aļaka or Muļaka were the two Andhaka kings.³ A brahmin well versed in mantras belonging to the kingdom of Kośala came to live in the kingdom of Assaka on the banks of the Godāvarī.⁴

¹ Pt. II, p. 359.

² Jāt. [I, pp. 356ff (Fausböll)]. Cowell means Mahimsakaraṭṭha by Andhradeśa (Cowell, Jāt., I, p. 203).

³ Suttanı pāta Commentary, II, p. 581.

⁴ Suttanipāta, p. 190.

CHAPTER XXXIV

THE DAMILAS

The Damilas,¹ commonly known as the Tamils, were a powerful S. Indian tribe, frequently mentioned in Buddhist texts, particularly the Ceylon Chronicles (Dīpavaṃsa, Mahāvaṃsa, Cūlavaṃsa). It is interesting to note that a Vinaya Commentary called Vimativinodanī was written by Kassapa Thera, an inhabitant of the kingdom of Damila.² In the Mahāvaṃsa Tīkā, however, we are told that the Damilas were disrespectful to the Buddhist stūpas.³

From the Pāli Chronicles we find that the Damilas were a warlike From early times they made incursions into Ceylon, and we frequently find Damila rulers on the throne at Anuradhapura. For instance, in 177 B.C., two Damilas, Sena and Gutta, are said to have conquered King Suratissa (187-177 B.C.) and ruled the island of Lanka (= Ceylon) for twenty-two years.4 In the second and first centuries B.C. the island of Lanka was very much troubled by the Damilas who became very turbulent. A Damila king named Elāra reigned in Lankā from 145 B.C. till 101 B.C., and was then defeated and dethroned by the famous Dutthagamani, 'himself a accompanied by ten great heroes'.5 great warrior. Mahāvamsa Tīkā we read that Dutthagāmanī fought with the Damilas, killing large numbers of them, and made a single realm This story is elaborated in the Sumangalavilāsinī of Cevlon.8 (p. 640).9 Here we read that 'Dutthagāmanī Abhaya', after defeating 32 Damila kings and being crowned at Anuradhapura as undisputed ruler of Ceylon, was so highly delighted that he did not sleep for a month. The Thūpavamsa (p. 59) further says that Dutthagāmanī defeated the Damilas at Mahiyangana, where he built a golden cetiya

² Sāsanavaṃsa, 33.

⁴ Dipavamsa, 18, 47.

8 'Ekarajjam katvā'—ibid., p. 437; and see p. 100.

¹ We may note that the word 'Dravidian' comes from the ethnic name 'Dravida', or 'Dramida', or 'Damila'.

³ Mahāvamsa Tīkā, p. 447 (P.T.S. Ed.).

<sup>Mahābodhivaṃsa, p. 133.
Mahāvaṃsa Tīkā, p. 24.</sup>

⁷ Ibid., p. 489—the phrase is 'ghātetvā Damile sabbe', 'killing all the Damilas', but this is probably poetic licence.

⁹ Cf. Thūpavamsa (P.T.S. Ed. by B. C. Law), p. 63, and B. C. Law, History of Pāli Literature, Vol. II, p. 577.

and worshipped it. On another occasion, he conquered the Damilas

'on the other side of the Ganges' (Gangaya paratire).1

Many Damilas were also killed by Velusumano, a general of Dutthagāmaṇī, after they had taken refuge in the city called Vijitanagara (or Vijitapura). Thereupon Dutthagāmaṇī's troops went to Giriloka, where a Damila general named Giriya was slain.² King Kākavaṇṇa Tissa, Dutthagāmaṇī's father, had also fought with the Damilas at Mahiyaṅgana, where he built a golden stūpa.³ In order to put a check on the Damilas he kept guards at the fords of the Mahāgaṅgā.⁴

In 43 B.C., in the fifth month of Vaṭṭagāmaṇī's reign, a Brahmin named Tissa rose against him, but was defeated by seven Damilas who landed at Mahātittha. Then these Damilas waged war against Vaṭṭagāmaṇī and defeated him at Kolambālaka. For fourteen years, Vaṭṭagāmaṇī and his queen Anulā were exiled, and during this period five Damilas ruled in succession at Anurādhapura. First came Pulahattha who ruled this city for three years, and appointed a Damila named Bāhiya as his commander (senāpati). Bāhiya succeeded Pulahattha, and was followed in his turn by Panayamāra, Piļayamāra, and Dāṭhika. Meanwhile, Vaṭṭagāmaṇī was staging a comeback, and in 29 B.C. he attacked and slew Dāṭhika, regained his throne, and reigned until 17 B.C.

Some years later (between 12 and 16 A.D.), the wicked queen Anulā poisoned all her husbands in succession; among them were two Damiļas, namely Vaṭuka and Niliya. Though there must have been Damiļa incursions during the succeeding four centuries, we have no definite dates until 433 A.D. when a Damiļa usurper named Paṇḍuka reigned in Ceylon for five years, after killing King Mittasena. A little later, another Damiļa usurper named Pīṭhiya ruled at Anurādhapura for seven months, and was then killed in battle.

More Damilas were killed by Māna,¹⁰ eldest son of Kassapa II (641–650 A.D.). We then have another gap in the chronology, until

¹ Mahāvaṃsa Ṭīkā, p. 476. The Ganges in this case is the 'Great River' of Ceylon (= Mahāvālukagaṅgā).

² Thūpavaṃsa (P.T.S. Ed. by B. C. Law), p. 62; Mahāvaṃsa Tīkā, pp. 475, 479; and see Malalasekera, Dictionary of Pāli Proper Names, s.v. Veļusumano, Dutthagāmanī, and Giriya.

³ Thūpavamsa, p. 58.

⁴ Mahāvamsa Tīkā, p. 448. ⁵ Ibid., p. 617.

⁶ This Dāṭhika must be identical with the Sāṭhika or Dāṭhika who is mentioned in the Dēpavaṃsa (19, 16) as having been killed by 'Abhaya, son of Saddhātissa', i.e. by Vaṭṭagāmaṇē.

⁷ Mahāvamsa Tīkā, p. 626.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 24.

⁸ Cūlavamsa (P.T.S.), p. 22.

¹⁰ Ibid., p. 71.

the time of Parakkamabāhu I of Ceylon (1153–1186 A.D.). During this period, Kulasekhara, a Cholian king of S. India, besieged the Pāṇḍyan king, Parakkama of Madhurā, and the latter appealed for help to Parakkamabāhu who sent an expeditionary force to S. India where they carried on a prolonged campaign against Kulasekhara and his allies, in the course of which the fortress of Semponmāri was conquered by the Sinhalese.¹ Meanwhile, the Pāṇḍyan king had been killed, but the Sinhalese defeated Kulasekhara and installed Parakkama's son on the throne of Madhurā.² About a century later, a powerful Damiļa general named Āriyacakkavattī laid waste the kingdom of Ceylon, entered the town of Subhagiri, seized all its sacred treasures, including the Buddha's tooth relic, and returned with them to the Paṇḍu kingdom, then ruled over by another Kulasekhara (1268–1308 A.D.).³

A study of the Buddhist texts clearly shows that the Damilas were a fighting people, engaged in constant strife with the Sinhalese. They are described as 'anāriyā' or uncultured. They were defeated and mercilessly massacred in almost all their battles with the Sinhalese; on one occasion, as we read in the Mahāvamsa Commentary, the Damilas were killed in such large numbers that the water of a pond became red on account of the profuse flow of Damila blood. They are said to have used red-hot iron balls and

molten pitch against their enemies.5

The literary tradition of Ceylon does not clearly indicate who these Damila invaders were. But, as we have seen above, the general Āriyacakkavattī, for example, came from the Paṇḍu kingdom, i.e. the land of the Pāṇḍyas in the southernmost part of India; and we may perhaps conclude from this that the Damilas who made predatory excursions into the island of Ceylon from time to time were natives of Pāṇḍya. We cannot tell, however, whether those Damilas who invaded Ceylon in early times were sent on their expeditions by the king of Pāṇḍu, or whether they were a race of marauders who undertook those expeditions on their own initiative. The Commentaries of Buddhaghosa distinguish the Damilas from the Yavanas and Kirātas on the one hand, and from the Andhras on the other.

The relations between the Damila country and Ceylon were not always inimical. For instance, the account of Vijaya in the Mahāvamsa distinctly brings out that a matrimonial alliance

¹ Cūlavamsa (P.T.S.), p. 402.

² See Malalasekera, op. cit., s.v. Kulasekhara.

⁸ Cūļavaṃsa, p. 512. ⁵ Ibid., p. 477.

⁴ p. 482. 6 VII, 72.

existed between the rulers of Lankā and Pāṇḍya. It is also mentioned that there was a very early settlement in Ceylon of skilled craftsmen and families of the eighteen guilds, all from Pāṇḍya. There existed a close cultural relationship and constant intercourse between S. India and Ceylon; notable centres of Buddhist learning mentioned in Pāli works being Kāverīpaṭṭaṇa, Madhurā and Kāñcipura (modern Conjeeveram).

CHAPTER XXXV

THE SAVARAS

The Śavaras or Śabaras referred to in both the Great Epics were a non-Aryan tribe. The earliest mention of them is to be found in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (VII, 18), where it is stated that the elder sons of Viśvāmitra were cursed to become progenitors of such servile races as Andhras, Puṇḍras, Śavaras, Pulindas and Mūtibas.¹ The implication of this passage seems to be that the Śavaras were a non-Aryan people dwelling somewhere in the Dakṣiṇāpatha. The Matsya and Vāyu Purāṇas definitely locate them in the south, describing them as Dakṣiṇāpathavāsinaḥ.² The Mahābhārata (XII, 207, 42) also places them in the Deccan along with the Andhras and Pulindas:—

Dakṣiṇāpathajanmānaḥ sarve naravarāndhrakāḥ Guhāh Pulindāh Śavarāś Cucukā Madrakaih (?) saha.

Ptolemy ³ mentions a country called Sabarai which is generally held to be identical with the region inhabited by the Śavaras. Cunningham identifies the Sabarai of Ptolemy with Pliny's Suari, and further identifies both with the aboriginal Śavaras or Suars, a wild race who lived in the woods and jungles without any fixed habitations, and whose country extended as far southward as the Pennār river. These Śavaras or Suars are only a single branch of a widely spread race found in large numbers to the south-west of Gwalior and Marwar and S. Rajputana where they are known as Surrius.⁴

The Rāmāyaṇa story of the Śavara women who were deeply attached to Rāmacandra also seems to indicate that the Śavaras were a wild tribe inhabiting the forest regions of the south.⁵

¹ Roth, Zur Litteratur und Geschichte des Weda, p. 133.

² Matsya P., 144, 46-8; Vāyu P., 45, 126.

³ McCrindle: Ptolemy's Ancient India, Ed. S. N. Majumdar, p. 173.

⁴ Ibid., p. 173.
5 See Rāmāyana, I, 1, 55 sq. (Cf. Rām., III, 77, 6 sq.)

CHAPTER XXXVI

THE MUTIBAS

The Mūtibas were a non-Aryan barbarian (Dasyu) tribe, mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (VII, 18) along with the Andhras, Pulindas and Śavaras. They are also probably referred to in the Sāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra (XV, 26, 6) under the name Mūcīpas or Mūvīpas.¹

The location of the Mūtibas is not definitely known, but as they are mentioned along with the Savaras and Pulindas who, according to the Purāṇas 2 and the *Mahābhārata*, 3 were 'dakṣiṇāpathavāsinaḥ' or located in the south, it may be surmised that the Mūtibas also were a southern tribe. This is also indicated by the fact that the Andhras with whom they are associated were also a southern people.

The Mūtibas were probably the same as the Modubae of Pliny, who are said to have dwelt beyond the Modo-Galingae, a tribe occupying a large island in the Ganges; though it is difficult to account for the Mūtibas evidently a southern tribe, coming to occupy a region not very far from the Ganges.

The Mūtibas do not seem to have been an important tribe; they are scarcely mentioned in the historical period.

^{1 &#}x27;It is not altogether improbable that the Mūcīpas are the people who appear in the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa (57, 46) under the designation of Mūshika. A comparison of the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa with the Sānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra betrays a good deal of confusion with regard to the second and third consonants of the name. It was, therefore, perfectly natural for later generations to introduce further variations. The Mūshikas were probably settled on the banks of the river Musi on which Hyderabad now stands' (P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., p. 80).

² Vāyu P., 45, 126; Matsya P., 114, 46-8.

³ XII, 207, 42.

CHAPTER XXXVII

THE PULINDAS

The Pulindas were a people belonging to the aboriginal stock, and have often been classed with such non-Aryan tribes as the Śabaras, Ābhīras, Pulkusas, etc. They are usually definitely stated to be a southern tribe, but there seems to have been a northern branch of the Pulindas as well.

The association of the Pulindas with the Andhras and Śavaras, as also with the Pundras and Mūtibas, is as old as the *Aitareya Brāhmana* (VII, 18), where it is stated that the elder sons of Viśvāmitra were cursed to become progenitors of such races as the Andhras, Pundras, Śavaras, Pulindas and Mūtibas.¹

The Mahābhārata² places the Pulindas in the Dakṣiṇāpatha (Deccan), along with the Andhras, Guhas, Savaras, Cucukas and Madrakas. The Matsya and Vāyu Purāṇas³ also describe them as Dakṣiṇāpatha-vāsinaḥ (dwelling in the Deccan), along with the Vaidarbhas, Daṇḍakas, Vindhyas and others. The Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa⁴ too places the Pulindas in the Deccan, and classes them with the Puṇḍrakas, Keralas, Kalingas, Ābhīras, Andhras, Vidarbhas and Kuntalas. The Śrīmad-Bhāgavatam (2, 4, 18) associates them with the Kirātas, Hūṇas, Andhras, Pukkusas, Ābhīras, Suhmas, Yavanas and Khaśas, all of whom sought the protection of Śrī Kṛṣṇa.

In the Bengali recension of the Rāmāyaṇa (Kiṣkindhyā K., XLI, 17; XLIV, 12), the Pulindas appear both in the south and in the north. The northern recension knows only of the northern Pulindas (Kiṣkindhyā K., XLIII). The Viṣṇupurāṇa b associates the Pulindakas (probably identical with the Pulindas) with the Sindhus: the two peoples are coupled in a compound—Sindhu-

² XII, 207, 42.

Kārūsāśca sahaisīkā Ātavvāh Śavarāstathā

Pulindā Vindhyapuşikā Vaidarbhā Dandakaih saha (Matsya, 114, 46-8).

Ābhīrāḥ saha caiṣīkāḥ Āṭavyāḥ Savarāśca ye

Pulindā Vindhyamulīkā Vaidarbhā Daņdakaih saha (Vāyu, 45, 126).

¹ Roth, Zur Litteratur und Geschichte des Weda, p. 133.

³ Teṣām pare janapadā Dakṣiṇāpatha-vāsinaḥ

⁴ 57, 45-8. The Pulindas are also mentioned in the Brahmanda Purana (see Pūrva Bhāga, 16, 40ff.), Brahma P. (27, 41ff.), Vāmana P. (13, 35ff.), Garuda P. (55, 10ff.).

⁵ See Wilson, Viṣṇu P. tr., Vol. 2 (1865), pp. 156ff.

Pulindakas—and are mentioned together with the Kārūṣas, Bhojas, Daśārṇas, Mekalas, Utkalas and other tribes. The compound Sindhu-Pulindaka also occurs in the *Mahābhārata* (6, 346ff.) and *Padmapurāṇa* (III, 6, 4ff.). The Pulindas are alluded to in the *Raghuvaṃśa* as well (XVI, 32), but there is hardly any clue to their geographical location.

The capital of the (southern) Pulindas was Pulindanagara which lay to the south-east of Daśārṇa, i.e. in the Vidiśā or Bhilsa region, and may have been identical with Rupnāth, the find-spot of one

recension of Minor Rock Edict I of Aśoka.1

At the time of Aśoka, the Pulindas, together with the Andhras, Bhojas and Rāṣṭrikas, formed a group of vassal tribes within the Emperor's dominions,² which extended as far south as the Pennar river in the Nellore district, just stopping short of the Tamil kingdoms, which are referred to as Pracamta or frontier states.

Some interesting information about the Pulindas is supplied by Ptolemy. According to him, the Pulindas seem to have been located along the banks of the Narmadā, to the frontiers of Lārike or Lāṭa = Gujarat; for he describes them as occupying a region northward of Nasik, Ozene (= Ujjain), Minnagara, Lārika or Lāṭadeśa (= Gujarat), Barygaza (= Bharukaccha = Broach), etc. His epithet for the tribe is 'Agriophagoi',— a Greek word indicating that they were a tribe that subsisted on raw flesh and wild roots and fruits.

Yule in his map locates the Pulindas to the north-east of the Gulf of Cutch.

¹ P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., pp. 79, 258.

² Rock Edict, V and XIII.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

THE KUNTALAS

The Kuntalas are twice mentioned in the Mārkandeva Purāna list of tribes, once in connection with the peoples of Kāśī and Kośala (LVII, 33), which means that they were a Madhyadesa tribe, and elsewhere (LVII, 48) along with the Asmakas, Bhogavardhanas, Naisikas, Andhras, etc., which suggests that they were a people of the Deccan. The Bhīsmaparvan of the Mahābhārata, however, seems to locate the people in three different regions. One verse (IX, 347) seems to locate them in the Madhyadeśa, while another (IX, 367) in the Deccan which is also upheld by a reference apparently to the same people in the Karnaparvan (XX, 779). A third reference in the Bhīṣmaparvan (IX, 359) suggests location of the tribe somewhere in the western region. Cunningham points out (A.S.R., XI, 123) that the country of the Kuntalas of the Madhyadesa should be identified with the region near Chunar which he calls Kuntila. Whatever be the merit of the identification, the Kuntalas of the Madhyadeśa do not seem to have attained to any historical eminence. Kuntalas of the west also have hardly any place in history. Kuntalas of the Deccan appear to have risen to considerable importance in historical times as will be evident from subsequent details.

Literary and epigraphic references have now proved beyond doubt that there were several families of the Sātakarṇis of the Deccan, and one or more of these families ruled over Kuntala of the Kanarese districts before the Kadambas (Ray Chaudhuri, P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., 339-40). One member mentioned in the Matsyapurāṇa list is actually called Kuntala Śātakarṇi, a name that is commented upon by the commentator of Vātsyāyaṇa's Kāmasūtra. He takes the word 'Kuntala' in the name Kuntala Śātakarṇi to mean 'Kuntalaviṣaye jātatvāt tatsamākhyaḥ'. A Śātavahana of Kuntala is also referred to in the Kāvyamīmāṃsā of Rājaśekhara. This king ordered the use of Prākrit to the exclusion of every other language by the ladies of his inner apartments. He has often been identified with king Hāla who hailed from Kuntala (Kāvyamīmāmsā notes, p. 9).

According to certain Mysore Inscriptions, the Kuntala region included the southern part of the Bombay Presidency and the

¹ Rice, Mysore and Coorg from Inscriptions, p. 3; Fleet, Dynasties of the Kanarese Districts, p. 284, f.n. 2.

northern portion of Mysore, and it was ruled at one time by the

kings of the Nanda dynasty.

Kuntala figured in history also in later times. An Ajantā Inscription credits the Vākāṭaka king Pṛthivīsena I with having conquered the lord of Kuntala. Another Vākāṭaka king Hariṣeṇa claimed victories over Kuntala along with Lāṭa, Avanti, Andhra, Kalinga, etc.

CHAPTER XXXIX

THE RĀŞŢRIKAS

The Rāṣṭrikas are mentioned for the first time in the Rock Edicts of Aśoka (V and XIII), along with the Andhras, Pulindas and Bhojas who were included as vassal tribes within Aśoka's dominions. The Andhras, Pulindas and Bhojas were known as early as the time of the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, but the Rāṣṭrikas find no mention there. The tribe had evidently not come into importance at that time.

Even after Aśoka's time the Rāṣṭrikas continued to be associated with the Bhojas. In the Hāthigumphā Inscriptions of King Khāravela of Kalinga (c. 150 B.C.), that monarch is said to have defeated the Bhojakas and Rāṭhikas (i.e. the Bhojas and Rāṣṭrikas of Aśokan inscriptions) in the fourth year of his reign, and to have

compelled them to do him homage.

The Sātavāhana records refer to two tribes, Mahābhojas and Mahāraṭhis (Smith, Aśoka, 4th Ed., p. 225), who were evidently identical with the earlier Bhojas and Rāṣṭrikas, and it is clear that the Rāṣṭrikas or Mahāraṭhis were the ancestors of the present Mahārāṣṭra people or Mārāṭhas (cf. R. G. Bhandarkar, Anc. History of the Deccan).

The Bhojas were located in the Vidarbha or modern Berar region, which is included within modern Mārāṭhi-speaking districts. The Rāṣṭrikas who were so frequently associated with them must have occupied the adjoining tracts, and it may be assumed that they were located in the very region where the present Mārāṭhas dwell.

CHAPTER XL

THE NĀSIKYAS

The Purāṇas make a mess in the mention of this people. The Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa in one context reads it as Naiṣikas (LVII, 48), but in the same canto in another context reads it as Nāṣikyāvas (LVII, 51), and still in another place correctly as Nāṣikyas (LVIII, 24). There is no doubt that at all these places one and the same people of ancient Nasik is meant. The Vāyupurāṇa reads Naiṣikas (XLV, 127) which the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa reads Naiṣikas, and instead of Nāṣikyāvas of the same source, it reads Nāṣikyas. The Matsyapurāṇa reads Vāṣikas (CXIII, 50). This confusion makes it evident that the people and the region were not so widely celebrated. This people moreover does not seem to have been known to the authors of the Epics.

CHAPTER XLI

THE ASMAKAS

The Aśmakas or Assakas formed one of the Kṣatriya tribes of ancient India. They are not mentioned in the Vedic literature, but we find them referred to in the Epics and Purāṇas. In an enumeration of the countries in 'Bhāratavarṣa', the land of the Aśmakas is mentioned along with those of the most prominent Kṣatriya peoples of ancient India, such as the Kurus and Śūrasenas.¹ In the different recensions of the Mahābhārata, the name of the tribe varies, being spelt either Aśmaka or Aśvaka. In Pāli Buddhist literature, the name is Assaka which, as Rhys Davids points out, may be the vernacular equivalent of either Aśmaka or Aśvaka. He continues: 'Either there were two distinct tribes so called, or the Sanskrit form Aśvaka is a wrong reading or a blunder in the Sanskritization of Assaka'.² The Greek writers mention a people called the Assakenoi in eastern Afghanistan and the Kunar valley, with their chief town at Massaga or Maśakāvatī.

In the *Mahābhārata*, there is some confusion between the Aśmakas and the Aśvakas, and some of the passages appear to contradict one another. In the *Jayadrathavadhaparvādhyāya*,³ the Aśmakas are found ranged on the Pāṇḍava side in the Kurukṣetra war; on the other hand, an 'Aśmaka-dāyāda', or a relative of the Aśmaka monarch, is said to have been killed in battle by Abhimanyu (VII, 37, 1605); and the same person is also referred to as 'Aśmakasya suta' (son of Aśmaka) in the verse immediately following (VII, 37, 1606). An Aśmakeśvara (king of Aśmaka) is also spoken of here (VII, 37, 1608). In a list of the tribes conquered by Karṇa, the Aśmakas are mentioned along with the Vatsas, Kalingas, Rṣikas, etc. (VIII, 8, 237). In the *Adiparvan*, a Rājarṣi Aśmaka, son of Vaśiṣṭha and Madayantī, wife of Kalmāṣapāda, is mentioned, and the story of his birth is referred to.⁴ The same king, who is called a Vāśiṣṭha, is said to have founded Paudanya (I, 177, 6791).

Pāṇini mentions Aśmaka in one of his Sūtras (IV, I, 173).

The Anguttara Nikāya, blike the Purānas, tells us that Assaka was one of the sixteen Mahājanapadas of Jambudīpa (India). It

¹ Bhīşmaparvan, Chap. 9, p. 822.

<sup>Buddhist India, p. 28.
I, 122, 4737.</sup>

³ VII, 85, 3049. ⁵ I, p. 213; IV, pp. 252, 256, 260.

⁶ Padmapurāņa, Svargakhaņda, Chap. III; Vişņudharmottaramahāpurāņa, Chap. IX.

had an abundance of food and gems, and was wealthy and prosperous. From the *Mahāgovinda Suttanta*, we learn that Potana was the (capital) city of the Assakas.¹

In the Suttanipāta,² one of the oldest works of the Pāli Buddhist literature, the Assaka or Aśmaka country is associated with Mūlaka with its capital Patiṭṭhāna (Paithan), and mentioned as situated on the bank of the river Godāvarī, immediately to the south of Patiṭṭhāna. The same passage speaks of a Brāhman guru called Bāvarī who, having left the Kośala country, settled near a village on the Godāvarī in the Assaka territory in the Dakṣiṇāpatha.³

Rhys Davids points out that the country is mentioned together with Avanti, in the same way as Anga is with Magadha, and its position in the list of *Mahājanapadas*, between Śūrasena and Avanti, makes it appear probable that when the list was drawn up, Aśmaka was situated immediately north-west of Avanti. In that case, the settlement on the Godāvarī was a later colony, and this is confirmed by the fact that there is no mention of Potana (or Potali) in the list. Further, Asanga in his *Sūtrālankāra* mentions an Aśmaka country in the basin of the Indus; and we have already noted that the Greek writers knew of a people called the 'Assakenoi' in eastern Afghanistan.

The legendary story of the origin of Asmaka, founder of the tribe, barely mentioned in the Mahābhārata, is narrated in full in the Brhannāradīva Purāna. Once Sudāsa, who is often identified with the Rgvedic hero who won the battle of the ten kings, went to the forest to hunt. He killed a tiger, and the dying animal took the shape of a terrible monster bent on wreaking vengeance on the king. An occasion soon presented itself. When Vasistha, the king's priest, had departed after performing a sacrifice for Sudasa, the monster assumed the form of the priest, appeared before the king, and asked him to prepare meat for him to eat. The monster once more changed his appearance, and appeared before King Sudasa in the guise of a When ordered by the king to prepare a dish of meat for Vasistha, he cooked human flesh; and the king offered the dish to the genuine Vasistha when he arrived. Vasistha thought the king to be wicked in offering him meat; and when, after meditation, he discovered that it was actually human flesh, he cursed the king, saying that he would become a monster, greedy for human flesh. When the king told him that it was (supposedly) by Vasistha's own order that the dish had been prepared, the Rsi meditated once more, learnt the

¹ Dīgha, II, p. 235.

² Verses 976-7.

³ D. R. Bhandarkar, Carmichael Lectures, 1918, p. 4; and p. 53, n. 5. 4 Buddhist India, pp. 27-8.

whole truth, and modified his curse to have effect for twelve years only. The king, in his turn, was about to curse Vasistha, but his queen Madayantī entreated him to forbear, and appeased his wrath. The king washed his feet with the curse-water; his legs turned black, and thenceforward he was famous as Kalmāṣapāda ('having speckled feet').

Every third night thenceforth the king took the shape of a rākṣasa, and strolling about the forest, used to kill human beings. One night he ate a Brāhmaṇī's husband, and the Brāhmaṇī cursed him, saying, 'You will die at the time of union with your wife'. After twelve years, the king was duly freed from the curse of Vaśiṣṭha. He desired an heir, but recollecting the Brāhmaṇī's curse, requested Vaśiṣṭha to act as his proxy. Queen Madayantī conceived, and a son was born to her after the lapse of seven years. According to the legend, the boy was named Aśmaka because his mother smote her womb with a stone (aśman) before he was born, in order to hasten delivery. Aśmaka's son was Mūlaka,¹ and his great-grandson is said to have been Dilīpa, the forefather of Rāma. Thus a connection is established between the Ikṣvākus and the Aśmakas.²

The Matsyapurāṇa (Chap. 272) gives us a list of twenty-five Aśmaka kings, contemporaries of the Śiśunāgas who reigned in

Magadha before the Nandas.

One of the Jātakas relates the following story. In Potali, the capital of Assaka, there reigned a king Assaka who had a queen of unique beauty. When she died, the king was overwhelmed with grief. The Bodhisattva, then dwelling at the foot of the Himālayas, got to know of the king's sorrow, and appeared before him. He showed the king his queen, reincarnated as a tiny dungworm. The king made himself known to his queen who told him in human voice that she no longer loved him,—the worm was now dearer to her. Thus the king was consoled.⁸

In another Jātaka,⁴ we read that Assaka was the king of Potali in the Assaka country. At this time Kalinga was reigning in the city of Dantapura in the Kalinga kingdom. Kalinga had four daughters of surpassing beauty, whom he ordered to sit in a covered carriage to be driven to every village, town and city with an armed escort. Kalinga declared that if any king were desirous of taking them into his harem, he would join battle with him. Passing through various countries, the princesses reached Potali in the Assaka country. The gates were opened by order of Nandisena,

¹ For the connection between the Asmakas and Mūlakas, see *Mūlaka chapter*.
² Brhannāradīya Purāna, Chap. q.

³ Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. II, pp. 155 foll.

⁴ Ibid., III, pp. 3 foll.

the minister of the king of Assaka; and the four princesses were brought before the king who, acting on Nandisena's advice, made them his queen-consorts and sent a message to King Kalinga informing him of this. Keeping his threat, Kalinga set out for Assaka with a large army, and a great battle was fought. Through Nandisena's diplomacy, Assaka defeated Kalinga who fled to his own city. Assaka demanded from Kalinga a portion of the dowry of his daughters. King Kalinga sent a befitting dowry to Assaka, and thenceforth the two kings lived amicably. According to this story, the countries of the Assakas and the Kalingas bordered on each other. Evidently it is the southern Aśmaka country, on the Godāvarī, that is here referred to.

The Vimānavathu Commentary tells us that a king named Assaka, whose capital was Potananagara, reigned in the country of Assaka. In fulfilment of a promise to grant a boon to his younger wife, he reluctantly sent Sujāta, his son by his first wife, to the forest, so that his younger wife's son should succeed him on the throne. Whilst in the forest, Sujāta met the Elder Mahākaccāyana, was instructed in the Dhamma by him, and afterwards became a bhikkhu.

¹ Vimānavatthu Commentary, pp. 259ff.

CHAPTER XLII

THE MULAKAS

The Mūlakas were a small tribe, very closely related with the Aśmakas of the South 1 (= Aśvakas of the Mahābhārata, Assakas of Pāli literature). They were perhaps situated to the south of Avanti, and according to Bhaṭṭasvāmī, the commentator of Kauṭilya's Arthaśāstra, their country was identical with Mahārāṣṭra. The position of the Aśmakas and Mūlakas may be determined by two references in the Suttanipāta. From verse 977 we gather that the Assakas and Mūlakas² occupied the region on the banks of the Godāvarī; while in verse 1011 the capital of the Mūlakas is described as being located at Patiṭṭhāna (Sans. Pratiṣṭhāna), i.e. Paithan (= Baithan of Ptolemy) on the north bank of the Godāvarī in the Aurungabad district of the Nizam's dominions.

Some scholars are of opinion that the Mūlakas occupied the same tract of country as that of the Aśmakas, and that the two tribes were identical. This is, however, doubtful. In the Vāyupurāṇa, both Aśmakas and Mūlakas are no doubt stated to be scions of the Ikṣvāku family (Chap. 88, 177-8); and if we are to believe the Pauranic tradition as contained in the Garuḍapurāṇa (Chap. 142, 34), Mūlaka, the originator of the Mūlaka tribe, was the son of King Aśmaka, a descendant of Bhagīratha. The Aśmakas and the Mūlakas were thus intimately related, but that the two tribes were different and lived in separate regions is revealed not only by the Brahmanical sources of the Epics and Purāṇas, but by Buddhist sources as well.

In early Pāli literature, Assaka is distinguished on the one hand from Mūlaka in the north and on the other from Kaliṅga in the east. According to the Paramatthajotikā (II, Pt. II, p. 581), the Godāvarī formed the border line between the territories of two Andhra kings (that is to say, between Assaka and Alaka). That the two countries were distinguished from each other is also upheld by the Pauranic tradition as contained in the Viṣṇudharmottara

As distinguished from the Asmakas of N.W. India, identical with the Assakenoi of the Greeks.

² It should be noted, however, that Mūlaka occurs only in the Burmese reading of the S.N. The Singhalese has 'Alaka', which seems to be identical with Mūlaka (Law, Geography of Early Buddhism, p. 21).

Dey, Geographical Dictionary, pp. 13 and 133.

⁴ Bhandarkar, Carmichael Lectures, 1918, pp. 53-4.

(Pt. I, Chap. 9). D. R. Bhandarkar, however, suggests that in later times Mūlaka came to be included in Assaka. In the Sonadaṇḍa Jātaka,¹ the Assaka country is associated with Avanti; this contiguity, according to Bhandarkar, can only be explained if it is assumed that Mūlaka was included in Assaka, and that the latter country was thus contiguous with Avanti.²

In giving the genealogy of the kings of Ayodhyā who belonged to the İkṣvāku or 'solar' race, some of the Purāṇas³ mention the names of six kings, namely, Aśmaka, Mūlaka, Śataratha, Iḍaviḍa (with variations), Vṛddhaśarman and Viśvasaha, who came after King Saudāsa Kalmāṣapāda. The list differs from that given in the other Purāṇas, but Pargiter considers it more authentic (Anc. Ind. Hist. Tradition, pp. 94 and 147). King Mūlaka is referred to in the Purāṇas enumerated above as reigning contemporaneously with one King Rāma. Mūlaka was afraid of Rāma and lived protected by a guard of women (nārī-kavaca). A similar statement occurs in the Mahābhārata.⁴ In the historical period, Aśmaka and Mūlaka were no longer connected with Ayodhyā.⁵

As late as the second quarter of the second century A.D., the Mūlakas are distinguished from the Aśmakas. The Nāsik Inscription of Gautamī, the Sātavāhana Queen, states that her son conquered the Śakas, Yavanas and Pahlavas, and that her dominions extended not only over Asika, Asaka (= Aśmaka) and Mūlaka, but also over Surattha, Kukkura, Aparānta, Anupa, Vidarbha and Ākara-Avanti.

¹ Jātaka (Fausböll), V, p. 317.

² Carmichael Lectures, 1918, pp. 53-4.

³ Vāyu P., Chap. 88, 178-9; Brahmānda P., Pt. III, Chap. 63, 178-9; Linga P., Pt. I, Chap. 66, 29; Kūrma P., Pt. I, Chap. 21, 14; Bhāgavata P., Pt. IX, Chap. 9, 40.

⁴ XII, Chap. 49, 1770-8 and 1792-3; for the historicity of these tales, see Pargiter, op. cit., p. 152, f.n. 2.

⁵ The country of the Mūlakas seems to have been mentioned as Maulika in Varāhamihira's *Brhatsamhitā*, XIV, 4.

CHAPTER XLIII

CŌLAS

In the earliest time of which we have any record, the Tamilagam or Tamil realm, as Dr. Barnett thinks, extended over the greater part of the modern Madras Presidency, its boundaries being on the north a line running approximately from Pulicat on the coast to Venkatagiri (Tirupati), on the east the Bay of Bengal, on the south Cape Comorin, and on the west the Arabian Sea as far north as the 'White Rock' near Badagara, to the south of Mahi. Malabar was included in it. 1 It consisted of three kingdoms, those of the Pāndvas. Colas and Chêras or Keralas. The Cola kingdom stretched along the eastern coast, from the river Penner to the Vellar, and on the west reaching to about the borders of Coorg. According to tradition, the Cola country comprised the land between two streams having the same name, Vellaru, in the north and the south, the sea on the east and Köttaikkarai in the west. The area included the modern districts of Trichinopoly and Tanjore and part of the Pudukkottah State.2 Its capital was Uraiyūr (old Trichinopoly). Kāvirī-paṭṭinam or Pugar on the northern bank of the river Kaveri was its great port while Kāñchī (modern Conjeeveram) was one of its chief towns. Uraiyūr corresponds to Sanskrit Uragapūra.

Negapatam, about 10 miles south of Kāraikkāl, also on the seaboard, was perhaps known to Ptolemy as an important town; at any rate it became a centre of trade and of many religions including Buddhism long before it attracted the attention of European merchants and missionaries. Tanjore, Trichinopoly and Kumbakonam are the present notable cities of the former Cōla country. Gangaikonda-Cōlapuram, at the meeting point of the modern districts of Trichinopoly, S. Arcot and Tanjore, rose to prominence as the Cōla capital in the eleventh and twelfth centuries.

The Cōla country was thus drained by the river Kāverī and comprised the districts of Trichinopoly and Tanjore.³ The river Kāverī is often alluded to and associated with the name of the Cōlas in South Indian inscriptions. Thus we learn from a South Indian inscription ⁴ that Hara asked Gunabhara: 'How could I, standing in

¹ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 595.

² K. A. Nilakanta Sastri, The Colas, Chap. 11, p. 22.

³ Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 271.

⁴ Hultzsch, South Indian Inscriptions, Vol. I, p. 34.

CŌLAS 187

a temple on earth, view the great power of the Colas or the river From another inscription we learn that the Calukva king Pulakesin II crossed the river Kāverī with his victorious army to enter the Cola country when 'the Kaveri had her current obstructed by the causeway formed by his elephants'. The glory of the Kaveri forms an inexhaustible theme of early Tamil poetry. According to the Manimekhalai. this noble stream was released from his waterpot by the sage Agastya in response to the prayer of the king Kanta and for the exaltation of the 'children of the sun'. special banner of the just race of the Colas, and she never failed them in the most protracted drought. The yearly freshes in the Kaveri formed the occasion of a carnival in which the whole nation from the king down to the meanest peasant took part.2 The origin of the name Cola is uncertain. The Parimelalagar is inclined to make it the name, like Pāndya and Cēra, of a ruling family or clan of The story of the eponymous brothers Ceran, Solan and Pāndiyan is indeed suggestive. The name Cōla, however, indicated from the earliest times the people as well as the country subject to the Cola dynasty of rulers. Col. Gerini wrongly connects the word Cola with the Sanskrit Kāla (black) and with Kōla which denoted in the early days the black or dark coloured pre-Aryan population of Southern India in general. The effort to derive it similarly from Tamil 'Cōlam' (millet) or Sanskrit 'Cōra' (thief) seems unsound. Other names generally used for the Colas are Killi, Valavan and Killi probably comes from 'Kil' (dig) meaning a 'digger'; Sembiyan. this word forms an integral part of early Cola names like Nedungilli and so on which is not found in later Cola names. Valavan probably comes from 'Valam' (fertility) and means owner of a fertile country, like the land of the Kāverī. Sembiyan is generally taken to mean a descendant of Sibi, a legendary hero whose self-sacrifice in saving a dove from the pursuit of a falcon figures among the early Cola legends and forms the theme of the Sibi Jātaka among the Jātaka stories of Buddhism.8

The Cola kings were alleged to belong to the tribe of Tiraiyar or 'Men of the Sea'. Their connection with the sea is probably indicated by the following reference of Aelian to the realm of Soras (Chola?) and its chief city: 'There is a city which a man of royal extraction called Soras governed at the time when Eukratides governed the Bactrians, and the name of that city is Perimuda. It is inhabited by a race of fish-eaters who go off with nets and catch oysters.' During the age of the Periplus of the Erythraean Sea,

¹ I, 9-12; 23-4.
² Manimēkhalai, p. 23.
³ Ibid., p. 25.
⁴ Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., 271, f.n. 2.

as Dr. Ray Chaudhuri shows in Appendix B (p. 387) of his work, the kingdom of Argaru (= Uragapura) was included in Damirica. The geographer Ptolemy refers to the kingdom of Sora (Chola) ruled by Arkatos and the kingdom of Malanga (probably Kāñchī, according to Dr. Ray Chaudhuri), ruled by Basaronagas. In the Mārkandeya,1 Vāyu 2 and Matsya 3 Purānas, the Colas are mentioned along with the Pāṇḍyas and Keralas. In the Rāmāyaṇa,4 Sugrīva is described as sending his monkey followers to the countries of the Colas, Pāndyas and Keralas in quest of Sītā. Kātyāyana in his Vārttikas or aphorisms to Pānini's Sūtras or grammatical rules mentions the Colas and the Pandyas. Patañjali in his Mahābhāsya mentions Kāñchīpura. Aśoka in his Rock Edicts II and XIII mentions the Cōlas, Pāndvas, Ketalaputras and Sativaputras as forming 'prachamta' or outlying provinces outside his empire. They were on friendly terms with him. The Colas, like the Pandyas, are spoken of in the plural in all the versions of the Asokan edicts, and this has been held to imply that 'in Aśoka's time there were more than one Cōda and one Pāndya King'.7 Two or three poets of the Sangam make references to an invasion of the south by the Moriyar (Mauryas). Māmūlanār also speaks of the wealth of the Nandas hidden under the Ganges at Pātaliputra. He says that the Vadugar formed the vanguard of the invading Mauryas (Aham 281). He further says that the Köśar undertook the subjugation of the south and as the Mohūr chieftain continued defiant, the Mauryas came down with their great forces on a warlike expedition to the south (Aham 251). The above account thus confirms the story of Bindusāra's conquest of Southern India as recorded by the Tibetan historian Tārānāth. is evident thus that Maurya empire in Southern India probably received some setback before the date when Rock Edicts II and XIII were promulgated.8 Allusions to the land of the Colas and Kāveripattinam are found in the Mahāvamsa. The Milinda-Pañho mentions Kola-Pattana, which according to Rhys Davids, must be some place on the Coromandel Coast. Here is a reference probably to Kāveripaṭṭinam. In the Jātaka story 10 Akitti to escape from his admirers is said to have left the neighbourhood of Benares for the Tamil country where he spent some time in a garden near Kāveripaṭṭana. The Mahāvaṃsa shows that towards the middle of the second century B.C., a Damila of noble descent, Elāra

Chap. 57, V. 45.

² Chap. 45, V, 124. 3 Chap. 112, V. 46. 4 IV. Chap. 41, Bombay Ed.

⁵ R. G. Bhandarkar, Early History of the Dekkan, p. 6.

⁶ IV, 2, Second Ahnika. 7 Cf. Bhandarkar, Aśoka, p. 41. 8 Ibid., p. 28. ⁹ Trenckner Ed., p. 359.

¹⁰ Jātaka (Fausböll), IV, 237 foll.

CŌLAS 189

by name, came to Ceylon from the Cōla country (Colaraṭṭha) overpowered Asela,¹ the then king of the island, and himself reigned as king for forty-four years with even justice towards friends and foes on occasions of disputes at law. He sentenced his only son to death for unwittingly causing the death of a young calf. In Tamil literature also we find the story of the prince and the calf which is placed in the reign of Manu.

The early history of the Cōla country is obscure. About the beginning of the Christian era the Cōla king was Peru-nar-Killi. His son was Ilanjet-Senni whose son was Karikāl, a vigorous ruler, under whom the Cōlas became the leading power of the south. He defeated an allied army of the Cheras and Pāṇḍyas and made an expedition to the north. At home he suppressed the turbulent Āyar, Aravāļar, Kurumbar and Oliyar. He made his capital at Kāveri-paṭṭinam on the Kāverī and he secured it from flood by raising the banks of the river as well as by making canals. From the Cōlas the hegemony of the south passed to the Cheras and later still to the Pāṇḍyas who were ousted by the Pallavas who later on became the suzerain power of Southern India.

¹ Mahāvamsa (Geiger), p. 166.

CHAPTER XLIV

PĀŅDYAS

The Pandya kingdom comprised the greater part of the modern Madura and Tinnevelly Districts and in the first century of the Christian era Southern Travancore also. It had its capital originally at Kolkai on the Tamraparni river in Tinnevelly and later at Madura (Daksina Mathurā). According to Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhuri the Pāṇḍya country corresponded to the Madura, Ramnad and Tinnevelly districts and perhaps the southern portion of the Travancore State. It was watered by the rivers Tāmraparni and Krtamālā or Vaigai. Kātyāyana in his Vārttika derives Pāndya from Pāndu. In the Mahābhārata and in several Jātakas the Pāndus are spoken of as the ruling race of Indraprastha. In the statement of Kātvāvana regarding the connection of the Pandyas with the Pandus who are mentioned in the Epic tale, we find an interesting clue for the name of Madura, the Pandya capital. Madura or Daksina Mathura is in a sense the same as Mathura or Muttra, the capital of the Surasena Now, according to Epic tradition, the Pandus Indraprastha were closely connected with the ruling family of the Surasena country by ties of friendship and marriage. The geographer Ptolemy (circa 150 A.D.) speaks of the country of the Pandoouoi in the Punjab. The association of the Pandyas of the south with the Surasenas of Mathura and the Pandus of Northern India is probably alluded to in the confused statement of Megasthenes regarding Herakles and Pandaia. Megasthenes, who visited the court of Candragupta Maurya towards the end of the fourth century B.C., has left on record some rumours concerning these southern He thus notes a legend that Heracles placed the south under the rule of his daughter 'Pandaia'. The Sanskrit Epics mention them vaguely as foreign lands outside their purview. Thus in the Mahābhārata² Sahadeva, the youngest of the Pandu princes, is represented in his career of conquest to have gone to Daksinapatha after having conquered the king of the Pandyas. In the same way the country of the Pandyas is mentioned in the Rāmāyana where Sugrīva is said to have sent his monkey-soldiers in quest of Sītā, Rāma's consort.8 In the Purānas also as in the case of the

¹ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 595.

<sup>Sabhāparvan, Chap. 31, V. 17.
Rāmāyana, IV, Chap. 41.</sup>

Mārkandeva, 1 Vāyu 2 and Matsya, 8 we find mention of the Pāndyas. In Rock Edicts II and XIII. Asoka mentions the Pandyas whose territory lay outside his empire. The relations between the Damilas and the natives of Ceylon form one of the main strands in the narra-Though on several occasions the Chronicle tive of the Mahāvamsa. speaks only of Damilas in general, still the distinction between the Pandva and Cola divisions of the Tamil country is well known and clearly observed in it. A careful study of the Buddhist texts shows that the Damilas were a fighting people always engaged in constant strifes with the Ceylonese. They are described as anariya or uncultured. 'Might is right' was their policy with the result that they were defeated and mercilessly massacred in almost all their battles with the Sinhalese as we find in the Mahāvamsa Commentary (p. 482). It is only in connection with a particular Damila general named Ariyacakkavatti that we are told that he returned with all booties to the Pandu country, the land of the Pandyas in the south. The literary tradition of Ceylon keeps us entirely in the dark as to whether those Damilas were sent with expeditions by the king of Pandu or they were a race of marauders who undertook those expeditions on their own initiative. The account of Vijava distinctly brings out that there existed a matrimonial alliance between the ruler of Lanka and that of Pandya. It is also mentioned that there was a very early settlement in Ceylon of skilled craftsmen and families of the eighteen guilds, all from Pandya.4 There existed similarly a close cultural relationship and constant intercourse between South India and Ceylon; the notable centres of Buddhist learning mentioned in Pāli works being Kāveripattana, Madhurā, and Kāñcipura.5

Strabo (XV, 4, 73) makes mention of an embassy sent to Augustus Caesar about the year 22 B.C. by a king 'Pandion', possibly a Pāṇḍya of the Tamil country. In the Periplus of the Erythraean Sea, the Pandian kingdom is mentioned which was included in Damirica. From the Hāthigumphā Inscription of the Cheta king Khāravela of Kalinga, it appears that in his eleventh year 'he had had Pithuḍa ploughed with a plough drawn by an ass', and seems to have pushed his conquest further south and made his power felt even by the king of the Pāndya country.

We have very little information regarding the early history of the Pāṇḍya country. Meagre references in the pages of classical

¹ Chap. 57, V. 45.

² Chap. 45, V. 124.

³ Chap. 112, V. 46. 4 Mahāvamsa, Chap. 7.

⁵ B. C. Law, Geographical Essays, Vol. 1, pp. 79-80.

⁶ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 597.

⁷ Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., App. E, p. 541.

⁸ Ibid., 4th Ed., p. 349.

writers like Pliny supplemented by the data collected from ancient Tamil literature are the only materials for a study of their history. From these we can gather that Nedun-jeliyan II was the first conspicuous Pāṇḍya ruler who made the Pāṇḍyas the leading power of the south. But the supremacy of the south ultimately passed to the Pallavas.

CHAPTER XLV

KERALAS OR CHERAS

The Keralaputra (Ketalaputra or Chera) is 'the country south of Kūpaka (or Satya), extending down to Kanneti in Central Travancore (Karunagapalli Taluk). South of it lay the political division of Mūshika'. It was watered by the river Periyar on the banks of which stood its capital Vañji (near Cochin) and at its mouth the seaport of Muziris (Kranganur). According to L. D. Barnett 2 the Chera or Kerala territory comprised Travancore, Cochin and the Malabar District; the Kongu-deśa (corresponding to the Coimbatore District and the southern part of Salem District), which at one time was separate from it and later annexed to it. Its capital was originally Vañji (now Tiru-Karūr, on the Periyar river, near Cochin), but later Tiru-Vañjikkalam (near the mouth of the Periyar). It had important trading centres on the western coast at Tondi on the Agalappulai, about five miles north of Quilandi, Muchiri (near the mouth of the Periyar), Palaiyūr (near Chowghat), and Vaikkarai (close to Kottayam).

The three Tamil kingdoms, viz. Cola, Chera and Pandya, are vaguely mentioned in the Sanskrit Epics and Puranas. Thus in the Purānas, as Sir R. G. Bhandarkar points out, the term Daksināpatha or Daksina is used to denote the whole peninsula to the south of the The Mārkandeya Purāna (Chap. 57, 45) reads Kevalas. The Vāyupurāņa (XLV, 124) and the Matsyapurāņa (CXIII, 46) as well as the Bhīsmaparvan of the Mahābhārata (IX, 352 and 365) give the correct reading Kerala. According to the Mahābhārata,4 the Keralas seem to have been a forest tribe. In historical times they are associated with the Colas and Pandyas. This is upheld by Harivamśa as well (XXXII, 1836). The Mārkandeya, Vāyu and Matsya Purāṇas mention the Colas, Paṇdyas and Keralas among the peoples of the Daksinapatha. In the Markandeya Purana,5 the reading of the second line, as R. G. Bhandarkar says, is wrong. He gives his reading as follows: 'Pāṇdyāś ca Keralāścaiva Colāh Kulyās tathaiva ca'. In the Rāmāyana, we read that Sugrīva, the

¹ Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 273.

² Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 595.

Early History of the Dekkan, p. 1.
 Sabhāparvan, XXX, pp. 1174-5.

⁵ Chap. 57, 45 (ed. Bibliotheca Indica).

⁶ IV, Chap. 41, Bom. Ed.

monkey-king, is described as sending his followers to the different quarters in search of Rāma's wife, Sītā, and Rāvaṇa, her ravisher. The monkey-soldiers are directed to go to the countries of the Andhras (Telugu people), the Pāṇḍyas, the Cōlas and the Keralas, in the south, and are told that they will there see the gate of the city of the Pāṇḍyas adorned with gold and jewels. In the Mahā-bhārata¹ Sahadeva in his career of conquest is represented to have subdued the Pāṇḍyas, Drāviḍas, Udras, Keralas and Andhras. Patañjali in his Mahābhāṣya shows an intimate acquaintance with the south. In Mahābhāṣya² Kerala (or Malabar) is mentioned. The same work mentions Māhiṣmatī, Vaidarbha and Kāñcīpura (Conjeeveram).³ In the second and thirteenth rock edicts of Aśoka, the outlying provinces of the Cōlas, Pāṇḍyas, Satiyaputras, Ketalaputras (Chera or Kerala), and the Andhras and Pulindas are mentioned.

Damirica is shown in the age of the *Periplus* as including Cerobothra (i.e. Keralaputra). During the age of Ptolemy the kingdom of Karoura was ruled by Kerobothros (Keralaputra).

After the Colas, the Cheras for a time became the leading power of the south. After them the Pandyas became the supreme power for some time in Southern India and then the Pallayas.

¹ Sabhāparvan, Chap. 31.

² IV, I, 4th Ahnika.

³ Early History of the Dekkan, p. 7.

CHAPTER XLVI

THE MAGADHAS

The Magadhas occupied a prominent position in very ancient times. Though the Rgveda does not mention them as such, yet Vedic literature generally contains innumerable references to them as a people. In the Atharvaveda Samhitā,¹ the Māgadha is said to be connected with the Vrātya as his Mitra, his Mantra, his laughter and his thunder in the four quarters. In the Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra² (which belongs to a school of the Sāmaveda), Vrātya-dhana or the property of the Vrātya is directed to be given either to a bad Brahmin or to a Brahmin of Magadha; but the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (XVII, I, I6), which also belongs to the Sāmaveda, does not say anything on the point.

In the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa (III, 4, 1, 1) we read that the people of Magadha were famous for their loud voice. The fact that Māgadha in later times often stands for 'minstrel' is easily accounted for by the assumption that the country was the home of minstrelsy and that wandering bards from Magadha were apt to visit the more western provinces of ancient India. The minstrel character of the Magadhas also appears from the Mānava Dharmaśāstra which mentions them as bards and traders. The Brahmapurāṇa tells us that the first great Samrāṭ or Emperor Pṛthu gave Magadha to Māgadha, being highly pleased with his song in praise of himself.

The later texts recognise the Māgadhas as a special caste, inventing their origin from intermarriage among the old established castes. In the *Gautama Dharmaśāstra* (IV, 17) and *Manusamhitā*,⁵ the Māgadha is not a man of Magadha, but a member of a mixed caste produced by the union of a Vaiśya man and a Ksatriya woman.

In the Sānkhyāyaṇa Āraṇyaka it is said that Madhyama, son of Prātibodhi, was a resident of Magadha (Magadhavāsin). In the Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra (XXII, 6, 18), the Magadhas are mentioned along with other peoples both of E. and of W. India, viz. the Kālingas, the Gandhāras, the Pāraskaras and the Sauvīras.

¹ Harvard Oriental Series, p. 774.

² VIII, 6, 28. Cf. Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, XXII, 4, 22.

⁸ Manusamhitā, X, 47.

⁴ Chap. IV, śl. 67; Vāyupurāņa, Chap. 62, śl. 147.

⁵ X, 47.

They are also mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹ where it is said that neither Kośala nor Videha was fully brahmanised at an early date,—much less Magadha.

Coming down to the Epic age, we find the Magadhas frequently mentioned, and much information about the country and the people may be culled from the Great Epics. For instance, the $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana$ tells us that Vasistha asked Sumantra to invite many pious kings, including the Magadhan king, who was well versed in all the śāstras. King Dasaratha tried to appease his irate queen Kaikeyī by offering to present her with 'articles manufactured in Magadha'. The Kiṣkindhyā Kāṇḍa 'informs us that Sugrīva sent monkeys in quest of Sītā to all parts of India, and even beyond its boundaries. Here Magadha is mentioned as one of the countries in the east.

Pargiter has sought to show on the evidence of the Purāṇas that the dynasties of Magadha and the adjoining countries were descended from Kuru's son Sudhanvan. Vasu, the fourth in succession from Sudhanvan, conquered Cedi from the Yādavas, thereby obtaining the title Caidyoparicara, and also annexed the adjoining countries as far as Magadha. When he offered to divide his five territories among his five sons, the eldest son Bṛhadratha took Magadha with Girivraja as its capital and founded the famous Bārhadratha dynasty there. We read in the Rāmāyaṇa that 'Vasu, the fourth son of Brahmā, built Girivraja, the ancient capital of Magadha'.

The Purāṇas assert that the successors of Jarāsandha ruled over Magadha for a thousand years. Two of these kings, Kuśāgra and Vṛṣabha, are commemorated in early names of Rājagṛha (Girivraja, Kuśāgra-pura, Vṛṣabha-pura). Ripuñjaya was the last king of this dynasty. He was killed by his minister Sunīka (? Pulika, Muṇika, Suṇaka), who installed his son Pradyota on the throne of Magadha. Five kings of the Pradyota dynasty ruled over Magadha for 138 years, after which the Śiśunāgas came into power. Twelve kings of this dynasty reigned in Magadha for 162 years, Mahānandin being the last king. Mahāpadma Nanda, son of Mahānandin by his Śūdra wife, destroyed the Kṣatriya race and established Śūdra rule in Magadha. Thereafter eight sons of Nanda ruled over Magadha for

¹ I, 4, I, IO.

 ² Ādi Kāṇḍa, 13th Sarga.
 ⁴ 48th Sarga, śl. 23.

³ Ayodhyā Kānda, śl. 37, 10th Sarga. 4 48th 5 Pargiter, Ancient Indian Historical Tradition, pp. 118, 282.

⁶ Ādi Kāṇḍa, canto 32, verse 7.

⁷ The famous King Bimbisāra is said to have been the fifth of the Śiśunāga line, which was established before 600 B.C.; but the *Mahāvaṃsa* makes Śiśunāga the founder of a dynasty which succeeded that of Bimbisāra.

a hundred years,¹ and then the Nandas were destroyed in their turn by Kauṭilya who installed Candragupta Maurya on the throne. Ten kings of the Maurya dynasty are said to have ruled over Magadha for 137 years. Bṛhadratha was the last king of this dynasty, which was followed by the Sungas, founded by Puṣyamitra. Ten kings of this dynasty ruled for 112 years, Devabhūti being the last monarch of the Sunga family; he was killed by Vāsudeva Kāṇva, who founded the Kāṇva dynasty, and four kings of this family ruled in Magadha for 45 years. Then Sipraka, a royal servant, murdered King Suśarman, usurped the throne and founded the Andhra dynasty, thirty kings of which reigned in Magadha for 456 years.² The Viṣṇupurāṇa gives us a long list of the ancestors of Jarāsandha as well as of the monarchs who succeeded him.³

Kālidāsa, who seems to have derived his materials from the Purānas and Epics, speaks of the intermarriage of the early kings of Kośala with the ruling family of Magadha. He says that Dilīpa, the father of Raghu, married Sudakṣiṇā, daughter of the king of Magadha.⁴ In his beautiful account of the Svayaṃvara of Indumatī, Kālidāsa also refers to the prominent position occupied by the Magadhan king.⁵ We have a description of Magadha in the Daśa-kumāracaritam of Daṇḍin who belongs to about the same period as Kālidāsa. Daṇḍin there speaks of a monarch, Rājahaṃsa, who was a powerful king of Magadha, and who defeated Mānusāra, king of Mālava.⁶ Bhāsa's Svapnavāsavadattā also speaks of Magadha and its king, whose daughter Padmāvatī married the king of Vatsa, Udayana.⁷

The Samantapāsādikā mentions two other kings of Magadha, viz. Anuruddha, and his son Muṇḍa. The latter is also referred to in the Aṅguttara Nikāya. Here we read that King Muṇḍa was overwhelmed with grief at the death of his queen, Bhaddā, and asked his treasurer to embalm her body in an oil pot, so that he might continue to look at her. The treasurer besought Muṇḍa to go to the sage Nārada who was dwelling at the Kukkuṭārāma near Pāṭaligāma

¹ Twenty-two years according to the more reliable account of the Samantaφāsādikā (72); cf. Mahāvaṃsa, Chap. IV.

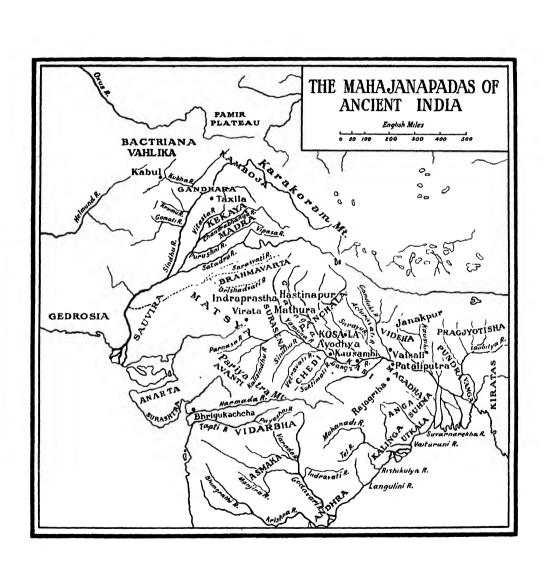
² Viṣnupurāṇa, IV, 24. The Buddhist Samantapāsādikā (Vol. I, pp. 72-3) gives the following summary of Magadhan dynasties. Udaya Bhadda reigned for sixteen years. He was succeeded by Susunāga (i.e. Siśunāga) who ruled for eighteen years. Then came the Nandas who reigned in Magadha for the same period. The Nanda dynasty was overthrown by Candagutta who ruled the kingdom for twenty-four years, and he was succeeded by Bindusāra who reigned for twenty-eight years, and was succeeded by Aśoka.

⁸ Visnupurāna, IV, Chap. 19, Chap. 23; Matsyapurāna, Chap. 50, Chap. 271.

⁴ Raghuvamsa, I, 31. ⁵ Ibid., VI

⁶ Sankhiptakathā, Pūrvapīthikā, pp. 4-5.

⁷ See Vatsa chapter.



mountains on all sides'. One of the ancient names of Rajagrha was Bārhadrathapura, after Jarāsandha. According to the Visnupurāņa, Jarāsandha gave his two daughters in marriage to Kamsa. king of Mathurā, and when Kamsa was killed by Kṛṣṇa, Jarāsandha marched with his army to Mathurā to destroy Kṛṣṇa with all the Yādavas, only to be repulsed with heavy loss.² From other sources, however, we learn that Jarasandha besieged Mathura with his large army of 23 aksauhinīs, defeated many of the kings of N. India, and kept them imprisoned in Girivraja, it is said in a temple of Siva, in order to sacrifice them to the god. According to the Sāntiparvan of the Mahābhārata, Jarāsandha, hearing of the valour of Karna, fought with him, but was defeated, and being pleased with his great skill in arms, made him king of the city of Mālinī.4 In the Adiparvan, Jarasandha is represented as a reincarnation of Vipracitti, a chief of the demons. Jarasandha exercised such great power that without defeating him it was not possible for Yudhisthira to assume the status of a paramount sovereign and perform the Rājasūya sacrifice. The Bhāgavatapurāna narrates that Bhīma, Arjuna, and Krsna went to Girivraja where Bhīma killed Jarāsandha. and Kṛṣṇa made Sahadeva (Jarāsandha's son) king of Magadha, and released all the kings imprisoned by Jarasandha. The Sabhaparvan relates that Bhīma proceeded again to Girivraja where he forced Sahadeva to pay taxes to him; and at the Rajasuya sacrifice, Sahadeva was present as one of the vassals of the Pāṇḍavas. In the Kurukṣetra battle, Dhṛṣṭaketu, son of Jarāsandha, helped the Pāṇḍavas with a fourfold army. After the battle of Kurukṣetra, when the horse let loose at the Asvamedha sacrifice of Yudhisthira was proceeding towards Hastināpura, Meghasandhi, son of Sahadeva of Magadha, offered battle to Arjuna, but was defeated by him.

After Ripuñjaya, the last king of Jarāsandha's line, came the Pradyotas, of whom there is not much to relate; and then followed the Siśunāgas. The Siśunāga dynasty was established before 600 B.C. (perhaps in 642 B.C.) by a chieftain of Benares named Siśunāga who fixed his capital at Girivraja or Rājagrha. Bimbisāra, said to

¹ Sabhāparvan, Chap. 21.

² Viṣṇupurāṇa, Aṃśa 5, Chap. 22. The Khila-Harivaṃśa (Viṣṇuparvan, Chap. 35, śls. 92ff. and Chap. 36, śl. 40) informs us that Jarāsandha, king of Magadha, killed the horses yoked to the chariot of Balarāma, but was ultimately defeated by the Vrsnis.

⁸ Mahābhārata, II, 14-5; Brahmapurāņa, Chap. 195, śl. 3.

⁴ Sāntiparvan, Chap. 5. ⁵ Ādiparvan, Chap. 67, v. 4.

⁶ Bhāgavatapurāṇa, Skandha 10, Chap. 72, sls. 16, 46.

<sup>Sabhāparvan, Chap. 30, v. 18.
Udyogaparvan, Chap. 57, v. 8.</sup>

⁹ Asvamedhaparvan, Chap. 82.

have been the fifth of his line, came to the throne about 528 B.C. The *Mahāvaṃsa*, however, makes Śiśunāga the founder of a dynasty which succeeded that of Bimbisāra; and the Purāṇas are self-contradictory. The first Pradyota, namely, Caṇḍa Pradyota Mahāsena, was a contemporary of Bimbisāra according to the early Pāli texts; but the Purāṇas, as we have seen, make Śiśunāga an ancestor of Bimbisāra.¹ The fact that Vārāṇasī was included within Śiśunāga's dominions ² supports the view that Śiśunāga came after Bimbisāra and Ajātaśatru, who were the first to establish Magadhan authority in Kāśī. The *Mālālaṃkāravatthu* ³ tells us that Rājagṛha lost its rank as a royal city from the time of Śiśunāga. This also goes to show that Śiśunāga came after the flourishing days of Rājagṛha, i.e. the period of Bimbisāra and Ajātaśatru.

The Mahāvaṃsa (Geiger Ed., p. 15) records some facts regarding King Bimbisāra of Magadha, telling us that he was 15 years old when he was anointed king by his father, and that he reigned for 52 years. The father of Bimbisāra was probably Bhaṭṭiya 4 who was defeated by Brahmadatta, king of Aṅga. As we shall see, this defeat was later avenged by Bimbisāra. 5 Dr. Bhandarkar, however, makes Bimbisāra the founder of a dynasty, and says that he was a general who carved out a kingdom for himself at the expense of the

Vajjis.

There are several more or less fanciful explanations of Bimbisāra's name. The Suttanipāta Commentary relates that he was called Māgadha because he was the lord of the Magadhas. He was the possessor of a large army, hence he was called Seṇiya; and he was called Bimbisāra because his colour was like that of excellent gold. In Rockhill's Life of the Buddha (p. 16), it is said that Bimbisāra was so called because he was the son of Bimbi, queen of King Mahāpadma of Rājagrha. Jaina works represent Bimbisāra as a Jain by religion, and sometimes in Jaina tradition his name is coupled with that of Aśoka's grandson Samprati, as a notable patron of the creed of Mahāvīra. All the Buddhist books, however, represent him as a devoted patron of the Buddha, and a great benefactor of the Buddhist Order.

¹ Vāyupurāṇa, 99, 314; Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 98, and his article on Seṇiya Bimbisāra, Ind. Hist. Quar., Vol. I, No. 1, March, 1925, p. 87.

² Dynasties of the Kali Age, p. 21.

³ S.B.E., XI, p. 16.
⁴ J.A.S.B., 1914, 321.
⁵ Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., pp. 98-9.

⁶ Carmichael Lectures, 1918, p. 72. 7 Ibid., p. 448.

⁸ Smith, Ancient and Hindu India, p. 45.

Bimbisāra is said to have built the new Rājagṛha, the outer town to the north of the ring of hills encircling the ancient fort. We

shall return later to the history of Rajagrha.

King Bimbisāra annexed Anga to his kingdom. Anga was a small kingdom to the east, corresponding to the modern district of Bhagalpur and probably including Monghyr. The Jātaka stories contain several references to Anga, both as an independent kingdom and as a vassal of Magadha. It is stated in one Jataka story that at one time the king of Benares conquered Anga and Magadha,2 and in another that the Magadhan kingdom once came under the suzerainty of Anga.³ The Campeyya Jataka records a fight between the two neighbouring countries of Anga and Magadha. The river Campā flowed between Anga and Magadha, and a Nāga king named Campeyya used to live in that river. From time to time Anga and Magadha were engaged in battle. Once the Magadhan king was defeated and pursued by the army of Anga, but he escaped by jumping into the river Campa. Again, with the help of the Naga king, he defeated the king of Anga, recovered his lost kingdom, and conquered Anga as well. He became intimately associated with the Anga king and used to make offerings to him on the bank of the river Campā every year with great pomp.4

While this story is evidently fanciful, the Mahāvagga ⁵ offers reasonable evidence to prove that Aṅga came under Bimbisāra's sway, while the Sonadaṇḍa Suttanta of the Dīgha Nikāya, by mentioning the bestowal of Campā, the capital of Aṅga, as a royal fief on the Brahman Sonadaṇḍa, indirectly proves the same. ⁶ The Jaina works ⁷ tell us that a Magadhan prince governed Aṅga as a separate province with Campā as its capital. During Bimbisāra's

lifetime, his son Ajātaśatru acted as Viceroy at Campā.

The annexation of Anga was the turning point in the history of Magadha. As V. A. Smith says, it marked the first step taken by the kingdom of Magadha in its advance to greatness and the position

² Jātaka (Fausböll), V, 316.

3 Ibid., VI, 272. See also Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India,

4th Ed., p. 91.

4 Jātaka (Fausböll), IV, pp. 454-5. In the Mahāvastu (I, pp. 288ff.) a story is narrated of how once Rājagṛha was suffering from a very severe pestilence. The king sent to the king of Aṅga for a bull with supernatural powers, owing to which the Aṅga kingdom was prosperous and healthy. This bull was lent by the king of Aṅga, and when it was brought within the boundary limits of the Magadhan capital, all pestilences due to attack by superhuman beings vanished.

¹ Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 32.

S.B.F., XVII, p. 1.
 Hemchandra, Sthavīrāvalī-charita; cf. the Bhagavatī Sūtra and the Nirayāvalī Sūtra.

of supremacy which it attained in the following century, so that Bimbisāra may be regarded as the real founder of the Magadhan imperial power. He strengthened his position by matrimonial alliances with the two neighbouring states, viz. Kośala and Vaiśālī. He took one consort from the royal family of Kośala and another from the influential Licchavi clan at Vaisali'.1 A third queen of Bimbisara, as mentioned in the Therigatha Commentary (p. 131) was Khemā, daughter of the king of Madda (Madra) in the Puniab. According to the Jaina Nirayāvalīya Sutta, the mother of Vehalla or Vihalla, one of the sons of Bimbisara, was a daughter of Cetaka, the then king of Videha.² There is also mention of Udumbarikādevi, a royal lady, whose relation with Bimbisara is not precisely known. The Jātakas tell us that Bimbisāra married Mahākośala's daughter, Kosaladevī, to whom her father gave as a wedding gift a village of Kāśī yielding a revenue of a hundred thousand, for bath and perfume money.3 The Mahāvagga says that Bimbisāra had 500 wives.4

Thus the marriages of Bimbisāra paved the way for the expansion of Magadha both westward and northward, and enabled Bimbisāra to add a part of Kāśī to his dominions and to launch Magadha on that career of conquest and aggrandisement which only ended when

Aśoka sheathed his sword after the conquest of Kalinga.5

The Vinaya Piṭaka (I, p. 179) tells us that Bimbisāra was the lord of 80,000 villages, and the Mahāvagga also states that Bimbisāra's dominions embraced 80,000 townships, the overseers (Gāmikas) of

which used to meet in a grand assembly.6

Bimbisāra had many sons, of whom we know the names of several, viz. Kūṇika Ajātaśatru, Abhaya, Vimala-Koṇḍañña, Vehalla (or Vihalla), Sīlavat, Megha, Halla, and Nandisena. King Bimbisāra's eldest son, Ajātaśatru, murdered his father. Many are the myths surrounding this dreadful deed. Devadatta, the recalcitrant cousin of the Buddha, is said to have performed a miracle and thereby succeeded in persuading Ajātaśatru to become his follower. It was he, it is said, who induced the prince to torture his father to death. During the lifetime of Bimbisāra, Ajātaśatru was made king, but at the instigation of Devadatta, he killed his

¹ Smith, Early History of India, pp. 31-2. See Licchavi chapter.

² Jaina Sūtras, I, S.B.E., p. xiii.

³ Nos. 239, 283, 492. See Kosala and Kāsī chapters. ⁴ VIII, 1, 15.

Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., pp. 166-7.
 Cf. Vinaya Piţaka, Pt. II, p. 1.
 See Licchavi chapter.

⁸ Psalms of the Sisters, p. 120; Psalms of the Brethren, p. 65.

⁹ Jaina Vividha-tīrtha-kalpa, p. 22.

¹⁰ See e.g., Sumangalavilāsinī, Pt. I, p. 134.

father by starving him, in spite of the efforts of Queen Kośaladevī to provide her husband with sustenance.

On the day that Bimbisāra died, a son was born to Ajātaśatru. The reports conveying the news of the death of his father and the birth of his child were received by his ministers simultaneously. They first handed to Ajātaśatru the letter conveying the news of the birth of his son. Forthwith the king's mind was filled with filial affection, and all the virtues of his father rose up before his mind's eye, and he at once ordered Bimbisāra's release. But it was too late. The ministers handed him the other letter, and on learning of his father's death, he wept, went to his mother, and asked her whether his father had any affection for him. Kośaladevī told him a story illustrating his father's love for him. Hearing this, Ajātaśatru wept hot tears.¹

The Vinaya (II, 490) gives a short account of an attempt made by Ajātaśatru to kill his father with a sword, and in the concluding portion of the Sāmaññaphala Sutta, there is an allusion to the actual murder which he afterwards committed. The details may or may not be true, but the fact that Bimbisāra was put to death by Ajātaśatru appears to have been a historical truth, the tradition is so strong and persistent with regard to this matter. According to the Ceylonese Chroniclers, this event took place 8 years before the death of Buddha, when Bimbisāra had been on the throne for 52 years. According to other accounts, Bimbisāra reigned for 28 or 38 years, and Ajātaśatru for 25 years.

After Bimbisāra's death, Queen Kośaladevī died of grief. Ajātaśatru then began to enjoy the revenues of the Kāśī village, the dowry of his mother. But Pasenadi of Kośala determined that no parricide should possess a village which had been presented to his sister, and he accordingly waged war upon his nephew. Pasenadi was defeated in three campaigns, but in another battle he avenged his defeat, and took possession of Kāśī. However, he treated Ajātaśatru generously, giving him his daughter Vajirā in marriage, and even bestowing the disputed village on her as a wedding gift. Thus Kāśī once again came under the sway of Ajātaśatru, and the two kingdoms of Magadha and Kośala were once more closely united by matrimonial alliance.⁵

Ajātaśatru afterwards succeeded not only in permanently annexing Kāśī, but also in absorbing the land of the Licchavis. At

¹ Sumangalavilāsinī, Pt. I, pp. 138-9. ² Dīgha Nikāya, I, p. 86.

³ Dīpavamsa, III, 50-60; Māhāvamsa, II, 28-31.

⁴ Pargiter, Purāna Text of the Dynasties of the Kali Age, pp. 67-9.

⁵ Samyutta Nikāya, I, 82-5. See Kāšī and Kosala chapters, and cf. Vaddhaki-sūkara, Kummāsapiņda, Taccha-sūkara and Bhaddasāla Jātakas.

any rate, the Licchavis were obliged to accept Ajātaśatru's suzerainty and to pay him revenue, but they were in all probability independent in their internal politics. Ajātaśatru is said to have made use of two deadly weapons, the Mahāsilākaṇṭaga and the Ra(t)hamusala, in his war with the Licchavis. The first seems to have been some engine of war of the nature of a catapult which hurled big stones. The second was a chariot to which a mace was attached and which, when in motion, effected a great slaughter of men. It may be compared to the modern tank.¹

Kūnika Ajātaśatru is represented throughout Jaina literature as a king of Anga who reigned in Campa. But the fact is that he was only the Uparāja or Viceroy of Anga which formed part of the kingdom of Magadha. While Viceroy of Anga, Kūnika-Ajātaśatru picked a quarrel with the Vrji-Licchavis of Vaišālī over the possession of a mineral mine on the boundary of the two territories. The Pāli commentatorial tradition indicates that Ajātaśatru was jealous of the Vrii-Licchavis on account of their national solidarity and numerical strength. Accordingly, after he had ascended the throne of Magadha, he became bent upon destroying them and uprooting their power. He deputed his minister Varsakāra to wait upon the Buddha and learn his opinion regarding the future of the Vris. coming to know that the Buddha laid much stress on unity as the source of their national strength, Ajātaśatru employed two of his ministers, Sunīdha and Vassakāra, to build a fort at Pāṭaligāma with a view to repelling the Vrjis.² He also proceeded to weaken them by treacherous means, and eventually succeeded in conquering them.8

The Mahāvaṃsa 4 assigns a reign of 32 years to Ajātaśatru, while the Vinaya Commentary, Samantapāsādikā, puts his reign at 24 years, and the Puranic tradition indicates that he reigned for 25 years. 5 Ajātaśatru suffered the same miserable fate as his father, being put to death by his son Udāyi Bhadda. 6 According to the genealogical lists given in the Purāṇas, Ajātaśatru was succeeded by Darśaka. 7 Bhāsa's Svapnavāsavadattā mentions a Magadhan king named Darśaka, but makes no mention of any fact that might lead us to believe that Darśaka was the successor of Ajātaśatru.

¹ Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., pp. 172-3.

² Sumangalavilāsinī, II, pp. 516-7; Dīgha Nikāya, II, 87.

For a fuller account, see Licchavi chapter.

4 II, vv. 29, 31, 32.

⁵ Pargiter, Purāṇa Text of the Dynasties of the Kāli Age, pp. 67-9.

⁶ Mahāvaṃsa, Chap. IV, v. 1.
7 Pargiter, Purāṇa Text of the Dynasties of the Kāli Age, pp. 67-9. 'Ajātaśatru was followed by Darśaka who reigned for 25 or 27 years. After Darśaka, Udāyin became king and made Kusumapura (Pāṭaliputra) his capital, situated on the south bank of the Ganges.'

Dr. Bhandarkar identifies him with Nāga Dāsaka who is represented by the Ceylonese Chronicles as the last king of Bimbisāra's line. The Pāli Canon and Jaina tradition do not warrant us in holding that Darśaka was the immediate successor of Ajātaśatru. The former asserts that Udāyi Bhadda was the son of Ajātaśatru and probably also his successor, and the latter¹ represents Udāyi as the immediate successor of Kūṇika Ajātaśatru. The Ceylonese Chronicles² also inform us that Udāyi Bhadda succeeded his father Ajātaśatru on the throne, and reigned for 16 years. That Udayabhadda or Udāyibhadda was the son and successor of Ajātaśatru is borne out by the Sāmaññaphala Sutta of the Dīgha Nikāya (I, p. 50), by the Samantapāsādikā (p. 72) and the Sumangalavilāsinī (Vol. I, pp. 153-4).

Before his accession to the throne, Udāyi Bhadda seems to have acted as his father's Viceroy at Campā.³ The Jaina work *Parišiṣṭa-parvan* tells us that it was Udāyin who founded on the bank of the Ganges a new capital which came to be known as Pāṭaliputra, though the first beginning of a garrison town appears to have been made during the Buddha's lifetime. The *Vāyupurāṇa* bears testimony to this fact and says that Udaya built the city of Kusumapura in

the fourth year of his reign.4

The successors of Udāyi Bhadda, according to the Purāṇas, were Nandivardhana and Mahānandin. The Purāṇa account does not tally with the Samantapāsādikā be which tells us that Udāyi Bhadda was succeeded by his son Anuruddha who reigned for 18 years, and was succeeded by his son Muṇḍa who reigned for the same period. Then came Nāga Dāsaka who reigned for 24 years. Nāga Dāsaka was banished by the citizens who anointed the minister, Śiśunāga, as king. This was probably because the people had become disgusted with the succession of parricides from Ajātaśatru to Nāga Dāsaka. Śiśunāga reigned for 18 years, and was followed by his son Kālāśoka, who reigned for 28 years. Kālāśoka had ten sons who ruled for 22 years.

Then came in succession the nine Nandas who took possession of the throne of Magadha and are said to have reigned for 22 years. According to the Purāṇas, the founder and first king of the Nanda dynasty was Mahāpadma Nanda, son of Mahānandin by a Śūdra woman. He usurped the throne of Magadha in or about 413 B.C.⁷

¹ Jacobi, Parisistaparvan, p. 42.

² Dīpavamsa, V, 97; Mahāvamsa, IV, 1. ⁸ Jacobi, Parišistaparvan, p. 42. ⁴ Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 176. Cf.

Vincent Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., pp. 38-9, and Samantapāsādikā, pp. 72-3.

⁵ Ĭbid., pp. 72-3. 7 Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 41.

We learn from Kauṭilya's Arthaśāstra, Kāmaṇḍaka's Nītisāra, the Purāṇas and the Mudrārākṣasa that the Nanda dynasty was overthrown by Candragupta Maurya with the help of his wily and astute minister, Kauṭilya.

Candragupta was the son of the chief queen of the Moriya king of Pipphalivana, and founder of the Imperial Maurya dynasty of Magadha. He was advised by his minister Kautilya to seek the help of the Licchavis who were then living under a sangha form of government. The Licchavis enjoyed a great deal of independence under Candragupta. It will be remembered that they had been forced by Ajātaśatru to acknowledge the suzerainty of Magadha. Candragupta appears to have liberated the Punjab from foreign rule. He inherited from his Nanda predecessor a huge army which he increased until it numbered 30,000 cavalry, 9,000 elephants, 600,000 infantry, and a multitude of chariots. With this irresistible force. he overran and subdued all the northern States, probably as far south as the Narmadā or even farther.2 Plutarch s tells us that he brought under his sway the whole of India. Justin also says that Candragupta was in possession of India. Vincent Smith states that 'the dominions of Candragupta, the first historical paramount sovereign or emperor in India, extended from the Bay of Bengal to the Arabian Sea'. Justin 5 informs us that while India was under Candragupta, Seleukos (Seleucus), a general of Alexander the Great, made an expedition into India (about 305 B.C.). Appianus says that he crossed the Indus and waged war on Candragupta, king of the Indians, until he made friends and entered into relations of marriage with him.6 The hosts of Candragupta, however, proved too strong for the invader to overcome, and Seleukos was perforce obliged to retire and to conclude a humiliating peace. This treaty may be dated in or about 303 B.C. It was ratified by a 'matrimonial alliance', which is taken to mean that Seleukos gave a daughter to Candragupta. Seleukos was not only compelled to abandon all thought of conquest in India, but also to surrender a large part of Ariana to the west of the Indus. In exchange for the comparatively trifling equivalent of 500 elephants, Candragupta received the Satrapies of the Paropanisadai, Aria and Arachosia, the capitals of which were known as Kabul, Herat and Kandahar respectively. The Satrapy of Gedrosia with its capital Makran seems also to have been ceded. The inscriptions of Aśoka prove the inclusion of the

¹ See chapter on Bulis, Moriyas, etc.

² Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 124.

³ Alex., LXII. ⁴ Smith, op. cit., p. 124.

⁵ Watson's Ed., p. 143.

⁶ Indian Antiquary, Vol. VI, p. 114.

Kabul Valley within the Maurya empire. After the war, the Syrian and Indian emperors lived on friendly terms. Seleukos sent an envoy, Megasthenes, to Candragupta's court. Megasthenes stayed at Pāṭaliputra for a considerable time, and wrote a history of India. Unfortunately this work, which would have been invaluable for the ancient history of India, has been lost. The fragments which survive in quotations by later authors such as Strabo and Arrian have been collected by Schwanbeck, and translated by McCrindle.

Great soldier and conqueror as Candragupta admittedly was, he was no less great as an administrator. We have a beautifully complete and detailed account of the system of administration in vogue in his time from the Arthaśāstra of Kautilya who is generally supposed to have been his chief minister, and the few fragments of Megasthenes which have survived amply corroborate this picture. The edicts of Asoka again confirm in many respects the particulars of the organisation of the empire given by Kautilya and Megasthenes. The supreme government, it appears from Kautilya's work, consisted of two main parts: (1) The $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$, on the one hand, and (2) the Mahāmātras, Āmātvas or Sacīvas (ministers) on the other. At the head of the State was the sovereign $(r\bar{a}j\bar{a})$ who had military, judicial, and legislative as well as executive functions, but was never the spiritual head. In addition to the Mantrins, there was the Mantriparisad or Assembly of Imperial Councillors. In several passages of the Arthaśāstra, the Mantrins are sharply distinguished from the Mantriparisad. The members making up the latter body evidently occupied an inferior position, their salary being 12,000 panas, while that of a Mantrin was 48,000 panas.1

Kautilya's Arthaśāstra has been so largely utilised by scholars that any attempt to present anew an account of Candragupta's government would be futile and a mere repetition of what has already been said on the subject. The Early History of India² and the Political History of Ancient India³ give us a systematic and critical account of the government of the great Maurya Emperor, while Jayaswal's work on Hindu Polity illuminates many obscure points of ancient Indian statecraft and administration.

Historians differ in presenting an account of the last days of Candragupta. According to Jain tradition, Candragupta abdicated the throne and became a Jain ascetic. He is said to have repaired to Mysore, where he died. According to Vincent Smith, 'Chandragupta either abdicated or died in the year 298 B.C.'.

¹ Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 230.

² By Vincent Smith. ³ By Hemchandra Ray Chaudhuri.

⁴ Rice, Mysore and Coorg from Inscriptions, pp. 3-4. ⁵ V. Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 126.

Candragupta was succeeded by his son Bindusāra, surnamed Amitraghāta (slayer of foes),—an epithet which is quoted, perhaps with reference to this king, in the grammatical work of Patañjali.¹ It is uncertain whether Bindusāra earned, or merely assumed, his sobriquet. The Puranas attribute to Bindusara a reign of 25 years, and the Ceylonese Chroniclers a reign of 28 years. The Samantapāsādikā,2 on the other hand, says that he ruled for 18 years only. According to Smith's chronology, Bindusāra's reign terminated about 273 B.C.3 The Divyāvadāna 4 tells us that Taxila revolted during his reign, and that he sent his son Asoka to quell the rebellion. When the prince approached Taxila with his troops, all disturbance was allayed. The people came out to meet him and said: 'We are not opposed to the prince, nor even to King Bindusāra, but the wicked ministers insult us.' Asoka alludes to the highhandedness of the Maurya officials in his Kalinga Edict.⁵ Nothing of political importance is known to have happened during Bindusāra's reign, but it is clear that he maintained intact the dominions inherited from Candragupta. The friendly relations between India and the Hellenistic powers, which had been initiated by his father Candragupta and the Greek empire-builder Seleukos, continued unbroken throughout his reign.6

Bindusāra was succeeded by his son Aśoka, who is said to have won undivided sovereignty over all Jambudvīpa after slaying all his brothers except the youngest, Tissa. Aśoka reigned without coronation for four years, and then consecrated himself as king in the city of Pātaliputra. He assumed the title of Devānampiya (dear to the gods), and loved to speak of himself as Devānampiyadasi. The name Aśoka is found only in literature, and in two inscriptions, viz. the Maski Edict of Aśoka himself, and the Junāgadh Inscription of the Mahākṣatrapa Rudradāman. Aśoka was at first called Caṇḍāsoka on account of his evil deeds, but he later became known as Dhammāsoka on account of his meritorious deeds. The Sarnath Inscription of Kumāradevī mentions the name Dharmāśoka.

During the first thirteen years of his reign, Aśoka appears to have followed the traditional Maurya policy of expansion within India and of friendly co-operation with foreign powers. In the thirteenth year of his reign, he conquered the kingdom of the Three Kalingas or Kalinga, and annexed it to his empire. The annexation of Kalinga, like that of Anga by Bimbisāra, was a great landmark

¹ Mahābhāṣya, III, 2, 88. ² Vol. I, p. 73. ³ Aśoka, p. 73. ⁴ Ibid., pp. 371-2. ⁵ Ibid., 3rd Ed., pp. 194-5.

⁶ Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., pp. 156 foll.

Samantapāsādikā, I, p. 41. Cattāri vassāni anabhisitto'va rajjam kāretvā.
 Smith, Asoka, p. 232.
 Cf. Rock Edicts.
 Mahāvamsa, Chap. V.

in the history of Magadha and of India. But the unavoidably heavy loss of life and property involved in the conquest of Kalinga made a deep impression on Aśoka and awakened in him feelings of profound compunction and sorrow. About this time he appears to have come under the influence of Buddhist teachers. This opened a new era—an era of peace and kindness to all animate beings, of social progress, of religious propaganda, and it marked the close of a career of conquest and aggression. 'The martial spirit of Magadha began to die out for want of exercise.' Thus came to an end the era of political 'digvijaya' begun by his mighty grandfather. giving place to the sacred 'era of Dhammavijaya' or conquest by the spiritual force of non-violence. Asoka's change of religion after the Kalinga war resulted in a change of the monarch's internal as well as foreign policy. He maintained friendly relations with the S. Indian and Hellenistic powers. He renounced once for all the old policy of violence, of conquering peoples, suppressing revolt by force and annexing territory. In Edict IV he says with a spirit of exultation: 'the reverberation of the war drums (Bherīghoso) has become the reverberation of the Law (Dhammaghoso)'. He called upon his future successors—sons and grandsons—to shun new conquests. This change of policy darkened the political horizon of the Magadhan empire in its heyday. Magadha which, before Bimbisara was merely a tiny State in South Bihar, had, during the interval from the time of Bimbisara to the Kalinga war of Asoka. expanded to a gigantic empire from the foot of the Hindu Kush to the borders of the Tamil country. After the Kalinga war, the political destiny of Magadha was reversed. The empire gradually became smaller and smaller till it sank to its pre-Bimbisarian area and position.

At one time King Bindusāra used to give alms to 60,000 Brahmins and heretics. Aśoka also followed his father for some time in making donations to non-Buddhist ascetics and institutions. But becoming displeased with them he stopped further charities to them and gave charities to the Buddhist bhikkhus. Aśoka sent missionaries all over India and also to Ceylon to preach the Buddhist dhamma. Almost all of these missionaries were natives of Magadha.

Aśoka continued the Council Government of his predecessors. The inscriptions bear ample testimony to the fact that he also retained the system of provincial administration in vogue under his forefathers. The emperor, and the princes who often acted as Viceroys in charge of the provinces, were helped by a number of officials who, according to the Edicts, may be classed as (I) The Mahāmātras,

¹ Samantapāsādikā, I, p. 44.

² *Ibid.*, I, p. 63.

(2) The Rājūkas, (3) The Prādeśikas, (4) The Yutas (the Yuktas of the Arthasastra, p. 59), (5) Pulisa (Purushas), (6) Paţivedakā

(Prativedakas), and (7) Vachabhumikā (Vrajabhūmikas).¹
Aśoka was succeeded by Daśaratha who was followed by a succession of weak Maurya kings who had only a vestige of the great power that Aśoka wielded. Brhadratha, the last of the Maurya dynasty, was treacherously murdered by his commanderin-chief, Puṣyamitra Śuṅga, who established himself upon the throne of his master and set up the Śuṅga dynasty. The Divyāvadāna (p. 434) tells us that the emperor continued to reside in Pataliputra. Pusyamitra ruled over Magadha for thirty-six years from about 185 to 140 B.C. During his reign the Mantriparisad (Assembly of Councillors) continued to be an important element of the governmental machinery. The viceregal princes were assisted by parisads.² The historical events worth mentioning during Pusyamitra's reign were the Vidarbha war and the Greek invasion. The former resulted in the splitting up of the kingdom of Vidarbha into two States, between which the river Varada formed the boundary. The latter is referred to in Patañjali's Mahābhāsya and Kālidāsa's Mālavikāgnimitra. Unfortunately, the name of the Greek invader is not given in either of these works. Historians differ as to the identity of the invader, but they agree that he was a Bactrian Greek. Dr. Ray Chaudhuri ³ adduces strong evidence to identify Demetrius with the Yavana invader referred to by Patañjali and Kālidāsa. Pusyamitra died in or about 140 B.C., as the Purānas affirm. He was followed by nine kings who ruled for 76 years. The Sunga dynasty probably lasted for 112 years. The last of the Sunga monarchs was Devabhūti who was a young and dissolute prince. The Purāṇas state that he was overthrown by his Minister, Vāsudeva Kāṇva. Rapson 4 says that the Sungas were a military power, but in later times they became puppets in the hands of their Brahmin councillors. They probably ruled originally as feudatories of the Mauryas at Vidiśa, the modern Besnagar, on the Vetravatī (Betwa) near Bhīlsā, and about 120 miles east of Ujjain. The Sunga dynasty probably came to an end about 73 B.C., and was succeeded by the Kanva dynasty which lasted till 27 B.C., when the Andhras came into power. For some time. Pātaliputra may have acknowledged their supremacy, but later on, it must have re-asserted its independence. After the period of the Andhras, the history of Pāṭaliputra passes into oblivion.

¹ For a full account of this reign, see Vincent Smith's Aśoka.

² Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., pp. 324-5.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 308ff. 4 Cambridge History of India, Chap. XXI, pp. 522-3.

At the beginning of the fourth century A.D. the Magadhan monarchy again rose into prominence under the Guptas. I-tsing mentions a king Mahārājā Śrīgupta of Magadha who may be placed in about the second century A.D. (175 A.D.). But the first independent sovereign (Mahārājādhirāja) was Candragupta, son of Mahārāja Ghatotkacha Gupta, and grandson of Mahārāja Gupta. Candragupta ascended the throne in 320 A.D., the initial date of the Gupta era. Like Bimbisāra he strengthened his position by a matrimonial alliance with the Licchavis of Vaiśālī, who appear to have continued to occupy an influential position in N. India, though for a time their glory was eclipsed by the rising State of Magadha. The union of Candragupta I with the Licchavis is commemorated by a series of coins, and by the Allahabad inscription. Through his Licchavi connection, Candragupta was elevated from the rank of a local chief, and he proceeded to lay the foundations of the second Magadhan empire.

His son and successor Samudragupta often felt pride in describing himself as the son of the daughter of the Licchavis. Before his death, Candragupta selected Samudragupta, his son by the Licchavi princess, as his successor. It is clear from the Allahabad and from the epithet 'tatpādaparigrhīta' applied to Samudragupta in other inscriptions that the prince was selected by Candragupta I from among his sons, as the best fitted to succeed him. It was the aim of Samudragupta to bring about the political unification of India and to make himself an Ekarāt (sole sovereign) over this united empire; but his only permanent annexation was that of portions of Āryāvarta, the Gangetic plain. Samudragupta made the rulers of the Atavika rājyas ('forest kingdoms') his servants, led an expedition to the south, and made his power felt by the powerful rulers of the Eastern Deccan. Here he defeated the kings, but following the pre-Mauryan Hindu policy he did not annex their territory. According to Dr. Fleet,² the Āṭavika rājyas were closely connected with Dabhāla, i.e. the Jabbalpur region.³ The Eran inscription of Samudragupta bears testimony to the conquest of this region and to the fact that the Vākātakas of the Western Deccan were deprived of their possessions in Central India by the Emperor. The kings (mostly of Daksinapatha) who came into conflict with the great Gupta conqueror were Mahendra of Kośala, Vvāghrarāja of Mahākāntāra, Mantarāja of Kaurāla, Svāmidatta of

¹ Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 447.

<sup>Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, p. 114.
Epigraphia Indica, VIII, pp. 284-7.</sup>

Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., pp. 455-6.

Pistapura and of Kottūra of Mahendragiri, Damana of Erandapalla, Viṣṇugopa of Kāñcī, Nīlarāja of Avamukta, Hastivarman of Vengī, Ugrasena of Palakka, Kuvera of Devarāstra, and Dhanañjaya of Kusthalapura.1 The tribal States of the Punjab, W. India and Malwa are also said to have obeyed his compelling mandate or decree (pracanda-śāsana) 'by giving all kinds of taxes, obeying his orders and coming to perform obeisance'. The most important among the eastern kingdoms which submitted to the mighty Gupta emperor were Samatata (part of E. Bengal bordering on the sea), Davāka (not yet satisfactorily identified) and Kāmarūpa (in Assam).2 The Dāmodarpur plates inform us that Pundravardhana or N. Bengal formed an integral part of the Gupta empire and was governed by a line of Uparika Mahārājas as vassals of the Gupta emperor. The dominion under the direct government of Samudragupta in the middle of the fourth century comprised all the most populous and fertile provinces of N. India. It extended from the Brahmaputra on the east to the Jumna and Chambal on the west, and from the foot of the Himalayas on the north to the Narmadā on the south. Beyond these wide limits, the frontier kingdoms of Assam and the Gangetic delta, as well as those on the southern slopes of the Himalayas, and the free tribes of Rajputana and Malwa, were attached to the empire by bonds of subordinate alliance; while almost all the kingdoms of the south had been overrun by the emperor's armies and compelled to acknowledge his irresistible might.3

The exact year of Samudragupta's death is not yet ascertainable. Dr. Ray Chaudhuri states 4 that he died some time after 375 A.D. He was succeeded by his son Candragupta II (born of Queen Dattadevi), who assumed the title of Vikramāditya ('Sun of Power'). He was also called Simhacandra and Simha Vikrama. Certain Vākāṭaka inscriptions and the Sānchi inscription

of 412 A.D. call him Devagupta or Devarāja.5

The greatest military achievement of Candragupta Vikramāditya was his advance to the Arabian Sea through Malwa and Gujarat, and his subjugation of the peninsula of Surāṣṭra or Kathiawad, governed for centuries by rulers known as Śaka Satraps.⁶ As a result of the western expedition, Malwa and Surāṣṭra were added to the Gupta dominions. Another event of political importance was the Emperor's matrimonial alliance with

¹ Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 452.

² Ibid., p. 456.

⁸ Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 303.

⁴ Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 464.

⁵ Indian Antiquary, 1913, p. 160.

⁶ Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 307.

the Vākāṭaka king of the Deccan, by the marriage of the Emperor's daughter Prabhāvatī with King Rudrasena II, son of Pṛthivīsena I. The original capital of Magadha under Candragupta II was Pāṭaliputra, but after his western conquests, Ujjain was made a second capital. Smith says: 'Ajodhyā enjoyed a more favourable situation and appears to have been at times the headquarters of the government of both Samudragupta and his son, the latter of whom probably had a mint for copper coins there. There is reason to believe that during the fifth century Ajodhyā rather than Pāṭaliputra, was the premier city of the Gupta empire.' ¹

Detailed information regarding the administrative history of the Magadhan empire under Candragupta II is not available, but the narrative of Fā-Hien and the inscriptions that have hitherto been discovered throw much light on the character of his administration, and on the social and religious condition of India at the time.

The Rājā was the head of the State. He was apparently nominated by his predecessor, both primogeniture and capacity being taken into consideration. A body of high ministers whose office was very often hereditary used to assist him. There was no distinction between civil and military officials.

After Candragupta II, the Gupta power in Magadha was temporarily eclipsed by the Puṣyamitras.² Then followed the Hūna invasion, in which the Emperor Skandagupta, according to Dr. Ray Chaudhuri,³ was presumably victorious, and, according to Smith,⁴ was unable to continue the successful resistance which he had offered in the earlier days of his rule, and was forced at last to succumb to the repeated attacks of the foreigners.

But the Magadhan empire did not wholly perish on the death of Skandagupta. It was ruled by Puragupta, Narasimhagupta,

Kumāragupta II, and Buddhagupta.

Then the imperial line passed on to a dynasty of eleven Gupta princes known as the 'later Gupta monarchs of Magadha'. The Damodarpur plates, Sarnath inscriptions, the Erān epigraph of Buddhagupta, and the Betul plates of the Parivrājaka Mahārāja Saṃkṣobha, dated in the year 518 A.D., testify to the fact that the Gupta empire continued to exert sovereign rights in the latter half of the fifth as well as the sixth and seventh centuries A.D.

In the first half of the seventh century, Harṣa, the great Kanouj monarch, overshadowed the Gupta power, which was revived by Ādityasena, who assumed the titles of Paramabhaṭṭakāra

¹ Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 310.

Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 478.
 Ibid., p. 488.
 Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 328.

and Mahārājādhirāja. Ādityasena and his successors, as proved by Aphsaḍ and Deo-Baraṇark inscriptions, were the only N. Indian sovereigns who laid claim to the imperial dignity during the last quarter of the seventh century A.D., and appear actually to have dominated Magadha and Madhyadeśa. The last king of the line of Ādityasena was Jīvitagupta II, who reigned early in the eighth century A.D.

About this time, the throne of Magadha was occupied by a Gauda king named Gopāla, as the Pāla inscriptions seem to indicate.¹ Then the great Magadhan empire decayed politically, being included in the Gauda empire of the Pālas and Senas, but it continued to remain the centre and headquarters of Buddhist learning up to the time of the Muhammadan conquests at the close of the twelfth century, when the monasteries with their well-stocked libraries were reduced to ashes.²

Magadha and its ancient capital Rājagṛha were intimately associated with the Buddha. Magadha was the scene of the real birth of Buddhism.³ The Buddha's chief disciples, Sāriputta and Moggallāna, were natives of Magadha, and it was at Rājagṛha that they were converted by the Buddha.⁴ Their conversion, and the consequent desertion of the school of Sañjaya the Wanderer, must have created a sensation among the citizens of Rājagṛha.⁵ Another notable conversion was that of Mahākāśyapa, who formerly belonged to another religious sect. Persons of many well-known families either became monks or lay supporters of the new doctrine. For want of accommodation in Veṇuvana, the bhikkhus passed the night in grottoes and caverns of the hills surrounding the city. This induced Anāthapiṇḍika, the great banker of Rājagṛha, to undertake, with the permission of the Buddha, to build some 60 vihāras for them.

Rājagṛha was the first place visited by the Bodhisattva after his adoption of ascetic life at Anupiyā in the Malla territory. It was here that he begged his food from door to door for the first time. It was somewhere in Magadha, between Rājagṛha and Uruvelā, that he met and placed himself under the training of Ārāḍa Kālāma and Uḍra Rāmaputra in the method of Yoga. He

¹ Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 413.

² Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 420.

³ Malalasekera, Pāli Proper Names Dicty., II, s.v. Magadha.

Kathāvatthu, I, 97; Vinaya Piţaka, I, 37ff.
 Vinaya, Cullavagga, p. 14.

⁶ Suttanipāta, pp. 72ff.; Fausböll, Jātaka, I, pp. 65ff.

⁷ Majjhima Nikāya, I, pp. 163ff.; Mahāvastu, II, 118; III, 322; Lalitavistara, VII, v. 54; Fausböll, Jātaka, I, pp. 66ff.

eventually selected Uruvelā in Magadha as the most fitting place for meditation and the attainment of enlightenment. Shortly after his attainment of Buddhahood, it was suggested to him that his primary task was the reformation of the religions of Magadha, which had all become corrupt.¹

A notable triumph of the Buddha in Magadha was the conversion of the three great leaders of the Jatilas with their thousand followers. With all these new converts, he proceeded towards Rājagrha and halted on the way at Latthi or Yasti-vana, a beautiful palm-grove belonging to King Bimbisāra. He was received with ovations by all the citizens of Rājagrha and the inhabitants of Anga-Magadha,

headed by King Bimbisāra.2

The conversion of the king (who was the Buddha's junior in age by five years) to the new faith proved a great incentive to the people at large to welcome it. King Bimbisara made a gift of his bamboo grove, Veluvana-Kalandaka-Nivapa to the Buddha and his With the formation of the order of Bhikkhunis at Vaiśālī, many women of Rajagrha, headed by Ksemā, the gifted queen of Bimbisara, joined the Order.4 Bhadda Kundalakesi. who was converted by the Buddha, went to Magadha after she became a therī, and lived in Gijjhakūta for some time.⁵ Therī Cālā was born in Magadha at Nālakagāma, in an influential Brahmin family. She, Upacālā, and Sisupacālā were the sisters of Sāriputta. They obtained ordination from the Buddha when they learnt that Sariputta had Other Magadhan ladies who entered the order been ordained.6 were Mettikā and Subhā, the daughters of an eminent Brahmin of Rājagrha,7 Dhammadinnā,8 Cittā,9 and Subhā, a goldsmith's daughter.10

The Theragāthā records the influence of the Buddha's teachings. For instance, once the Buddha gave instruction to Visākha, the son of a rājā in Magadha, and as a result Visākha renounced the world.¹¹ The Divyāvadāna ¹² gives an account of a journey from Śrāvastī to Rājagṛha, which was undertaken by the Buddha and his monks. In the course of this journey, the Buddha six times saved some merchants of Śrāvastī from being robbed. Velaṭṭha Kaccāna was another trader who, on his way to Rājagṛha from Andhakavindha,

¹ Majjhima Nikāya, I, p. 168; Vinaya, Mahāvagga, p. 5.

² Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, p. 146; Mahāvastu, III, 441ff.

³ Vinaya, Mahāvagga, p. 39; Fausböll, Jātaka, I, p. 85.

⁴ Therigāthā Comm., pp. 127-8.
5 Ibid., pp. 106-7.
7 Therigāthā, pp. 28 and 148.

⁸ Ibid., p. 16. 9 Ibid., p. 27. 10 Ibid., p. 142. 11 Psalms of the Brethren, p. 152. 12 pp. 55, 94-5.

met the Buddha and his pupils, and offered each bhikkhu a pot of molasses.¹

The *Dīgha Nikāya*² narrates that at Rājagṛha the Buddha summoned all the bhikkhus and prescribed several sets of seven conditions of welfare for the Saṅgha. Once the Buddha, while sojourning amongst the Magadhas, went to a Brahmin village named Khānumata, and took up his abode in the Ambalaṭṭhikā grove (mango-grove). An influential Brahmin named Kūṭadanta, the owner of the village, together with many Brahmin householders, was converted to the Buddhist faith after conversing with the Buddha.³

The Pāli Texts abound with references to the Buddha's experience and converts in Magadha, and especially at Rājagrha.4 One of the best-known stories is that of the Buddha and Bharadvaja, the Brahmin ploughman of Ekanālā, a Magadhan village.⁵ The Dīgha Nikāya and Sumangalavilāsinī give a beautiful account of the visit paid to the Buddha by the parricide monarch of Magadha, Ajātašatru. Territorial expansion could not satisfy Ajātašatru or bring peace to his perturbed mind. After murdering his father he could not sleep soundly, but dreamed dreadful dreams; and he devised various means of spending the night without sleep. On one occasion, the whole of Rajagrha was illumined and decorated and was full of festivities and enjoyments. Ajātaśatru with his ministers went on the terrace and saw the festivities going on in the city, so that he might not fall asleep. The moon-lit night by its soft beauty elevated his soul, and the thought arose within him of approaching a 'Samana or Brāhmana' who could bring solace to his tortured mind.6 Hearing of the great virtues of the Buddha from Iīvaka, the greatest physician of the day, Ajātaśatru came to the mango-grove where the Buddha was staying,7 and asked whether he could show him the effect of leading the life of a Samana. The Buddha did so by delivering to the repentant king a discourse on various virtues of the ascetic life as narrated in the Sāmaññaphala Suttanta of the Dīgha Nikāya.8

¹ Vinaya Piṭaka, I, pp. 224-5.

² II, pp. 76-81.

³ Dīgha Nikāya, I, pp. 127ff.

⁴ See, e.g. Dīgha Nīkāya, I, pp. 150ff.; II, pp. 202-3, 218; III, pp. 36ff., 58, 99, 194ff.; Sanyutta Nikāya, I, pp. 8ff., 27-8, 52, 55, 65-7, 106-7, 160-4, 166-7, 185ff.; Anguttara Nikāya, II, pp. 29-30, 181-2; II, pp. 366ff., 374ff., 383ff.; Majjhima Nikāya, III, 237ff.; Jātaka, I, 65-6, 86, 156.

⁵ Samyutta Nikāya, I, pp. 172-3; Suttanipāta, I, 3.

⁶ Sumangalavilāsinī, I, 141-2.

⁷ Ibid., I, 151-2.

⁸ Ibid., I, pp. 158ff. See also Dīgha Nikāya, I, 47ff.

Once Vassakāra (later the chief minister of Ajātaśatru) began the work of repairing the fort at Rājagṛha. He needed timber for the purpose, and went to the reserved forest, but was informed that the wood was taken by a bhikkhu named Dhaniya. Vassakāra complained to King Bimbisāra, and the incident was brought to the notice of the Buddha who ordered the bhikkhus not to take anything which was not offered or presented to them.¹

The Buddha passed away in the eighth year of Ajātaśatru's reign.2 It was from Rajagrha that he started on his last journey to Kuśinārā, stopping on the way at Ambalatthikā, Nālandā and Pātaligāma, and delivering fruitful discourses to all who came in contact with him.3 After the Buddha's parinirvana, his relics were distributed among various clans. Ajātaśatru obtained a share and enshrined it with great respect and honour, instituting a worship of the relics on a grand scale.4 He built Dhātu Caityas all round Rājagrha, his capital, and at his own cost repaired 18 mahāvihāras at Rajagrha which had been deserted by the bhikkhus after the Buddha's death. The bhikkhus headed by Mahākassapa performed the funeral ceremony of the Buddha, and resolved to hold a council at Rājagrha.7 Accordingly, Rājagrha is famous in the history of Buddhism as the place where 500 distinguished theras met under the leadership of the Venerable Mahākassapa to recite the doctrine and discipline of the Buddha, and fix the Buddhist canon.8 later traditions, whether in Pali or Sanskrit, tell us that the First Council was convoked in front of the Saptaparni or Saptaparna cave on a slope of the Vaibhāra or Vaihāra hill, and under the auspices of king Ajātaśatru, who constructed a suitable mandapa (tent) for the purpose; but the Vinaya account distinctly says that the main reason for selecting Rajagrha for the purpose was that it could afford spacious accommodation for the 500 theras.

The shady slopes and caverns of the hills around Rājagṛha were fitting places for the lonely meditation of bhikkhus and bhikkhuṇīs, theras and therīs. The sombre beauty of the hills and

the retreats was much praised by the Buddha.9

The Vimānavatthu Commentary points out that Rājagrha was much frequented by Gautama Buddha and his disciples. The people of Rājagrha were always ready to satisfy the needs of the

¹ Vinaya Piţaka, III, pp. 41-5.
² Samantapāsādikā, I, p. 72.

³ Dīgha Nikāya, II, pp. 72-89.

⁴ Paramatthadīpanī on the Petavatthu, p. 212.

⁵ Mahāvamsa, p. 247. Ekatimsatimoparicchedo, v. 21.

⁶ Samantapāsādikā, I, pp. 9-10. 7 Mahāvaṃsa, Chap. 3, pp. 16 foll.

⁸ Vinaya Cullavagga, XI. 9 Dīgha Nikāya, II, p. 116.

bhikkhus.¹ Buddhaghosa records various facts about Rājagrha. For instance, two chief disciples of the Buddha went to the city, and the inhabitants showered charities upon them. A silk robe was also given in charity to Devadatta (the Buddha's wicked cousin).² The Samantapāsādikā records that Rājagrha was a good place, having accommodation for a large number of bhikkhus.³ We may also mention two Jātaka references to legends regarding Rājagrha.⁴

It is not possible to refer to all of the stories told of the Buddha's disciples and their connection with Magadha, and particularly Rājagrha. We have already mentioned the fact that Sāriputta was a native of Magadha; he is often referred to in the Pāli literature.5 It was at Rājagṛha that Anāthapiṇḍika, the great banker of Śrāvastī, was converted by the Buddha.6 The Manorathapūranī relates that Pindola Bharadvāja, one of the Buddha's foremost disciples, was born at Rajagrha in a rich Brahmin family.7 It further narrates that Cullapanthaka and Mahapanthaka, grandsons of Dhanasetthi, a banker of Rājagṛha, could by their supernatural power create as many bodies as they liked.8 Kumārakassapa, foremost of the orators amongst the Buddha's pupils, was born at Rājagṛha.9 While the Buddha was at Rājagrha at Kalandakanivāpa, a party of six bhikkhunīs went to attend the Giraggasamajja, a kind of festival. 10 Apparently such festivals were common in the Magadhan capital, for we read in the Jātaka (I, 489) that there was a festival at Rājagrha where people drank wine, ate flesh, danced and sang; and in the Visuddhimagga 11 we read of a festival at Rajagrha in which five hundred virgins offered Mahākassapa-thera a kind of cake which he accepted. Another celebration known as Nakkhattakīļam, 'sport of the stars', in which the rich took part, used to be held at Rājagrha, and lasted a week.12

The *Divyāvadāna* contains several stories about Rājagṛha. For instance, a householder went to sea with merchandise ¹⁸; on another occasion 500 merchants came to Rājagṛha, but could not buy merchandise as there was a festival going on at the time. ¹⁴ Once a childless merchant of Rājagṛha died. The inhabitants of the town put seeds of various colours into a pot and declared that the

¹ Vimānavatthu Comm., pp. 250-1; and see ibid., pp. 246-7, 27-8.

² Dhammapada Comm., I, pp. 77ff. 8 Vol. I, P.T.S., pp. 8-9.

⁴ Jātaka (Fausböll), No. 445, IV, pp. 37 foll., No. 311, IV, pp. 33 foll.
⁵ See, e.g. Anguttara Nikāya, V, pp. 120-1; Samyutta Nikāya, IV, pp. 251-60.

⁶ Samyutta Nikāya, I, pp. 55-6.

⁷ Sinhalese Ed., p. 122.

⁸ Manorathapūranī, Sinhalese Ed., pp. 130ff.
⁹ Ibid., pp. 173ff.; and see Dhammapada Comm., III, pp. 144 foll.

¹⁰ Vinaya Pitaka, IV, 267.

¹¹ Vol. II, p. 403.

¹² Vimānavatthu Comm., pp. 62-74.
¹⁸ p. 301.
¹⁴ p. 307.

person who was able to pick out seeds of one colour only would become the merchant (i.e. his heir).1

A certain merchant of Rājagrha built a vihāra for the bhikkhus.² The Vinava Pitaka 3 tells us a story of a trader who had made preparations to go on a journey from Rajagrha to Patiyaloka, when a bhikkhu on his begging tour came to the trader's house for alms. The trader exhausted the food which he had collected for the journey. by giving it to several bhikkhus. Not being able to start his journey when he had intended, he set out late and was killed by robbers on the way.

It is apparent from the foregoing references that many people of Magadha, and more especially of Rajagrha, were engaged in trade and commerce. There are numerous references in the Jatakas to big bankers of Magadha in the Buddha's time. In the Asampadāna *Jātaka*, for instance, we find that a Magadhan setthi or banker named Sankha was the master of eighty crores of wealth. a friend in Benares who was also a banker, having the same amount of riches. Sankha helped his friend greatly, but was repaid by base ingratitude. Hearing of this ingratitude, the king caused the setthi of Benares to give all his wealth to his benefactor; but the Magadhan banker was so honest that he refused to take back more than his own money.4 The Petavatthu Commentary tells us that there was a merchant at Rājagrha who was so very wealthy that his immense riches could not be exhausted even if 1,000 coins were spent every day.5

Rājagrha, the ancient capital of Magadha, had many names in the course of its long history; and many explanations of these names have been put forward by various authorities, indigenous and foreign. By some it was said that Rajagrha (Pali Rajagaha) was so called because it was founded by a king, and every house in it resembled a palace.6 Buddhaghosa says, however, that the town was called Rajagaha because it was used as a residence (lit. seized) by Mandhātā, Mahāgovinda, and the rest.7 Dhammapāla refers to another opinion accounting for the name Rājagaha as a prison for inimical kings (paţirājūnam gahabhūtattā).8 The town was also called Kuśāgrapura, 'the city of the superior reed-grass' which abounded there, or 'city of (King) Kuśagra' and Girivraja,

² Vinaya Pitaka, II, p. 146. 3 IV, pp. 79-80. ⁵ pp. 2-9.

⁴ Jātaka (Fausböll), I, pp. 466-7.

⁶ Spence Hardy, Manual of Buddhism, p. 162, note. ⁷ Sumangalavilāsinī, I, p. 132.

⁸ Udāna-vannanā, Siamese Ed., p. 32. Cf. Bhāgavatapurāņa, X, Chap. 7, according to which Jarāsandha imprisoned several kings in Rājagrha. 9 Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, 148.

because it was surrounded by mountains.¹ Girivraja is the name which was given in the $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana$ and the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ to the old capital of Jarāsandha, king of Magadha. Dhammapāla says that the place was originally built or planned by Mahāgovinda, the famous architect,² while in the $S\bar{a}sanavamsa$ we read that King Mandhātā was the founder of Rājagaha,³ and in the $Suttanip\bar{a}ta$ Commentary it is stated that Rājagaha was ruled by famous kings like Mandhātā and Mahāgovinda.⁴ In the Jātakas it is mentioned as a great city.⁵

The Mahābhārata describes Girivraja or Rājagrha, the capital of Jarāsandha, as a city which had a teeming population and was noted for hot springs (tapodas). Jinaprabha-sūri tells us that it contained 36,000 houses of merchants, half of which belonged to the Buddhists, while the other half belonged to the Jainas, shown forth in the middle as a row of magnificent buildings. Buddhaghosa too mentions Rājagaha as a city, the inner and outer areas of which contained each nine crores of people. The city had 32 gates and 64 posterns.7 According to the Chinese pilgrims' accounts, high mountains surrounded it on every side and formed its external ramparts, as it were. On the west it could be approached through a narrow pass, while on the north there was a passage through the mountains. The town was extended (i.e. broad) from east to west, and narrow from north to south. It was about 150 li in circuit. The remaining foundations of the wall of the inner city were about 30 li in circuit. Kanika trees with fragrant bright golden blossoms were on all the paths, and these made the woods in late spring all golden-coloured.8

Hsüan Tsang would have us believe that the name Rājagṛha was strictly applicable only to the new city built either by Bimbisāra or by Ajātaśatru, not far to the north-east from Veṇuvana (the old city being known as Girivraja). Fā-Hien too speaks of the 'old city' and the 'new city'. By the old city Hsüan Tsang distinctly means Kuśāgrapura, and by the new city he means the city which King Ajātaśatru made his capital.

¹ Mbh., Sabhāparvan, Chap. XXI, v. 3. For a detailed description of the mountains surrounding Rājagṛha, see B. C. Law, Rājagṛha in Ancient Literature, M.A.S.I., No. 58.

² Vimānavatthu Comm., p. 82. Mahāgovindapanditena Vatthuvijjāvidhinā sammadeva nivesite, sumāpite.

⁸ p. 152. ⁴ p. 413. ⁵ I, 391.

<sup>Vividha-tīrtha-kalpa, p. 22.
Spence Hardy, Manual of Buddhism, p. 323.</sup>

⁸ Beal, Buddhist Records of the Western World, II, 150; Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, 148.

⁹ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, 162.

The Jaina Vividha-tīrtha-kalpa speaks of Rājagrha as the residence of such kings and princes as Jarāsandha, Śreṇika, Kuṇika, Abhaya, Megha, Halla, Vihalla and Nandisena. Śreṇika was no other than King Seṇiya Bimbisāra of Pāli literature, and Kuṇika was King Ajātaśatru. Abhaya, Megha, Halla, Vihalla and Nandisena we have already referred to as sons of Bimbisāra.

During the reigns of Bimbisāra and Ajātaśatru, the city of Rajagrha was at the height of its prosperity. Anga formed an integral part of the kingdom of Magadha, which comprised an area covered by the districts of Gaya and Bhagalpur. The Jaina texts describe Rajagrha as a city which was rich, happy and thriving 2; but some two centuries after the death of Mahāvīra a terrible famine visited Magadha.3 Rājagrha must have lost its glory with the removal of the capital to Pataliputra or Kusumapura by Udāyibhadda, some 28 years after the Buddha's demise. But the Hathigumpha Inscription lifts the veil for a moment, and shows that when Brhaspatimitra was king of Magadha (second century B.C.), King Khāravela of Kalinga marched towards Magadha after having stormed Gorathagiri, and brought pressure to bear upon Rājagrha (Rājagaham upapīdāpayati).4 Rājagrha must have been used by the then king of Magadha, if not as a capital, at least as a strong fortress against foreign inroads. As was the case with most if not all ancient cities, Rājagrha was walled; we read in the Vinaya Pitaka (IV, pp. 116-7) that the city-gate of Rajagrha was closed in the evening, and then nobody, not even the king, was allowed to enter the city. The same inscription refers to Anga and Magadha as united into one kingdom.

When Fā-Hien visited the place in the fifth century A.D., he found the sites still there as of old, 'but inside the city all was emptiness and desolation, no man dwelt in it'. The Karanda Veņuvana monastery was still in existence, tenanted by a 'company of monks'. At the time of Hsüan Tsang's visit in the seventh century A.D., 'the old inhabitants of the city were 1,000 Brahmin families', and many Digāmbaras lodged on the Pi-pu-lo (Vaibhāra) mountain and practised austerities.

Rājagrha was intimately associated not only with the development of Buddhism, but also with its rival religion, Jainism, and with earlier popular creeds such as Nāga- and Yakkha- worship. Nāgas and Yakkhas were popular objects of veneration in Rājagrha

p. 22.
 Jaina Sūtras, Pt. II, p. 419.
 Mrs. Sinclair Stevenson, Heart of Jainism, p. 10.

⁴ Barua, Old Brāhmī Inscriptions in the Udayagiri and Khandagiri Caves, p. 17. ⁵ Legge's Fā-Hien, p. 82. ⁶ Ibid., p. 84.

⁷ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, pp. 154, 162.

in early times; while old ruined temples of Gaņeśa and Śiva still remain on Vaibhāra-giri. Rājagṛha was popularly known to have been so much under the influence of such malevolent spirits as Nāgas and Yakṣas that even the Buddhist bhikkhus had to be furnished with a Paritta or 'saving chant' in the shape of the Mahā-āṭānāṭiya Suttanta for their protection against them.¹ The tapodas or hot springs and the Tapodā or Sarasvatī carrying water from those hot springs were popularly regarded as puṇyatīrthas or places for holy ablutions.² The hot springs of Rājagṛha survive today.

Rājagṛha was the earliest known stronghold of heresy and heterodoxy of the age.³ The early records of Buddhism bring before us six powerful teachers, Purāṇa Kassapa, Makkhali Gosāla, Pakudha Kaccāyana, Ajita Kesakambalī, Sañjaya Belaṭṭhiputta and Nigaṇṭha Nātaputta (i.e. Mahāvīra), who proved founders of schools (titthakaras) and leaders of thought. Makkhali Gosāla was the leader of the Ājivikas, and Nigaṇṭha Nātaputta the leader of the Nirgranthas or Jainas. The beginnings of their career are bound up with the history of Rājagṛha.

Vardhamāna Mahāvīra was born in Magadha,⁴ and he once preached at the court of Bimbisāra with so much force and good logic that the heir, prince Nandisena, was converted.⁵ Mahāvīra spent fourteen rainy seasons in Rājagṛha.⁶ The eleven Gandharvas of Mahāvīra died in Rājagṛha after fasting for a month.⁷ Jaya, son of King Samudravijaya of Rājagṛha, renounced the world and practised self-restraint.⁸

Rājagṛha was one of the three places selected by the Chabbaggiyas (Ṣaḍvargikas) of Vinaya notoriety, for planting centres of their mischievous activities. Rājagṛha, too, was the place where Devadatta fell out with the Buddha, tried to do personal harm to him, fomented schism in the Saṅgha, and eventually created a division in it. The *Dhammapada Commentary* records the jealousy of other sects towards Buddhism. Moggallāna, for example, was struck by certain fanatics with the help of some hired men. In the *Petavatthu Commentary*, we read that many heretics of the

Dīgha Nikāya, III, pp. 194ff.; Samyutta Nikāya, II, pp. 259–62.
 Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, pp. 154, 162.

³ The Wanderer Mahāsakuladāyi informed the Buddha that Aṅga and Magadha were full of sophistic activities (*Majjhima Nikāya*, II, pp. 1-22).

⁴ Mrs. Sinclair Stevenson, *Heart of Jainism*, p. 8.
5 *Ibid.*, p. 126.
6 *Jaina Sūtras*, S.B.E., Vol. I, p. 264.
7 *Ibid.*, p. 287.
8 *Ibid.*, II, pp. 86-7. For other mentions of Rājagrha and Jainism, see *ibid.*,

⁸ Ibid., II, pp. 86-7. For other mentions of Rājagṛha and Jainism, see ibid.,
II, pp. 31ff., 383 f.n.
9 Vinaya Cullavagga, VII.
10 III, pp. 65ff.

Saṃsāramocaka caste lived in some villages of Magadha.¹ Somewhere in Magadha, between Rājagṛha and Uruvela, not far from the Mahānadī (Mohānā) lived two teachers, Ārāḍa Kālāma and Udra Rāmaputra, who founded schools for the training of pupils in yoga.²

The Brahmins who lived in Rājagrha and around it were mostly of the Bhāradvāja-gotra. Some of them were agnihotris, some upholders of the cult of purity by birth, morals and penance. They were generally opposed to the conversion of any of their number to the Buddhist and other such non-Brahmanical faiths.³ In the Buddha's time, Rājagrha was surrounded by many Brahmin villages or settlements.⁴

What actually happened to the Buddhist Sangha at Rajagrha as a consequence of the transfer of the capital to Pātaliputra, we cannot precisely say. But we can tell from glimpses of fact here and there that the process of history was one of decay. Hsüan Tsang tells us that 'two or three li to the north-west of this (the Kalanda Tank to the north of the Venuvana monastery) was an Aśoka tope beside which was a stone pillar, above 50 feet high, surmounted by an elephant, and having an inscription recording the circumstances leading to the erection of the tope. The circumstances that led to the erection of the tope at Rajagrha by Asoka are also narrated by the Pāli scholiasts and chroniclers. The Mahāvamsa says that the Venerable Indagutta (Indragupta) went from all places around Rajagrha as a representative to take part in the grand celebration of a Mahathupa in Ceylon during the reign of King Dutthagāmani (second century B.C.). As some of the images recently discovered at Rajagrha indicate, there was some amount of new vigour in Buddhist activities at the place under the patronage of the Pala kings, after which the history of Buddhism at Rajagrha became practically closed for ever.

We have already indicated that Rājagrha was surrounded by mountains. The Rṣigiri or Isigili, as its name shows, was a favourite hermits' retreat. as indeed were the other mountains which encircled

¹ pp. 67–72.

² Majjhima Nikāya, I, pp. 163ff.; Fausböll, Jātaka, I, pp. 66ff.; Lalitavistara, pp. 243ff.; Mahāvastu, Vol. II, p. 118; Vol. III, p. 322; Buddhacarita, VI, v. 54; Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, p. 141.

³ Samyutta Nikāya, I, pp. 160-7. See also Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, p. 162; Samyutta Nikāya, II, pp. 238-9; ibid., IV, p. 230.

⁴ E.g., Ekanālā Ambasanda, Khānumata.

⁵ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, p. 162.

⁶ Ed. Geiger, pp. 227-8.

⁷ Majjhima Nikāya, III, pp. 68-71; and see B. M. Barua's Historical Background of 'Jinalogy and Buddhalogy', in the Calcutta Review, 1924, p. 61.

the city.¹ The most famous of these mountains was the Gṛdhrakūṭa or Gijjhakūṭa peak, so called either because it was shaped like vulture's beak, or because it was frequented by vultures.² Dhaniya, a potter's son, made a beautiful hothouse at the foot of the Gijjhakūṭa hill, and many people came to see it.³

The Vepullapabbata, which was once known as the Vankakapabbata, was another of the hills surrounding Rājagrha. King Vessantara was banished to this mountain, which was also

called Supassa. It took three days to reach its summit.4

Among the villages which lay near Rājagrha was Ekanālā, a Brahmin village in Dakkhiṇagiri, an important locality which lay to the south of the hills of Rājagrha. A Buddhist establishment was founded there.⁵ The Saṃyutta Nikāya distinctly places it in the kingdom of Magadha, outside the area of Rājagrha.⁶

Nāla, Nālaka, Nālagāma or Nālakagāma was a village in Magadha, where Sāriputta died. The *Vimānavatthu Commentary* 8 locates Nālakagāma in the eastern part of Magadha. The village

of Kolika is also associated with Sāriputta.9

Khānumata was a prosperous Brahmin village somewhere in Magadha, where a Vedic institution was maintained on a land granted by King Bimbisāra.¹⁰ The garden Ambalaṭṭhikā in the vicinity of Khānumata became the site of a Buddhist establishment. The Rājagāraka at Ambalaṭṭhikā was a garden house of King Bimbisāra.¹¹ Ambalaṭṭhikā stood midway between Rājagṛha and Nālandā,¹² and was the first halting place on the high road which extended in the Buddha's time from Rājagṛha to Nālandā and further east and north-east.¹³

The place where King Ajātaśatru is said to have built a stūpa for the enshrinement of his share of the Buddha's relics ¹⁴ is an important site from the Buddhist point of view. Hsüan Tsang definitely tells us that this stūpa stood to the east of Veņuvana. ¹⁵

¹ For a full account of these mountains, and indeed for everything regarding Rājagṛha, see B. C. Law, Rājagṛha in Ancient Literature, No. 58 of Memoirs of the Archaeological Survey of India.

² Suttanipāta Comm., p. 413.

³ Vinaya Piṭaka, III, 41-2.

Ibid., II, 191-2.
 Saṃyutta Nikāya, I, p. 172.
 Jō Saratthappakāsinī, I, p. 242.
 Saṃyutta Nikāya, I, p. 172.
 Jbid., V, p. 161.
 p. 163.

⁹ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, p. 171. Kolika was located eight or nine li (1½ miles) south-west of the Nālandā monastery.

^{10 &}amp; 11 Sumangalavilāsinī, I, p. 41.

¹² Dīgha Nikāya, I, p. 1; Sumangalavilāsinī, I, p. 35.

¹³ Dīgha Nikāya, II, pp. 72ff.

 ¹⁴ Ibid., II, p. 166. See also Sumangalavilāsinī, II, pp. 611 and 613. Mañjuśrīmūlakalpa, p. 600.
 15 Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, p. 158.

The Veluvana or Venuvana was a charming garden, park or grove at Rājagṛha, surrounded by bamboos.¹ The name may be translated 'Bamboo Grove' or 'Bamboo Park'. The land was received as a gift by the Buddha. The fuller name of the site was Veluvana Kalandakanivāpa, the second part of the name indicating that here the Kalandakas or Kalakas (squirrels or jays) roamed about freely and found a nice feeding ground. In the Pāli accounts King Bimbisāra figures as the donor of the garden. It is certain that the site was outside the 'inner city'. Fā-Hien definitely informs us that the Karanda Bamboo Garden stood to the north of the old city, over 300 paces from the gate, on the west side of the road.² Hsüan Tsang adds further details regarding its site.³

Another grove which was presented to the Buddha and his Order was the Jīvaka-Ambavana, a mango-grove which Jīvaka converted into a vihāra, and gave to the Buddha and his Order. King Ajātaśatru had to go out of the city of Rājagrha to reach this orchard. In the commentary on the Sāmaññaphala Sutta, Buddhaghosa says that the king proceeded by the eastern gate of the city, the 'inner city of Rājagaha', under the cover of the Gijjhakūṭa mountain, because the mango-grove stood somewhere between the mountain and the city wall. Fa-Hien places it at the 'north-east corner of the city in a (large) curving (space)'. Hsüan Tsang, too, locates the site 'in a bend of the mountain wall', northeast from the (old) city. According to Watters' suggestion, based upon a Chinese account in the Fo-shuo-sheng-ching, Chap. II, the orchard 'was apparently in the inclosure between the city proper and the hills which formed its outer defences on the east side'.

Other sites in or near Rājagṛha, which find mention in Pāli literature, were the deer-park at Maddakucchī,⁹ Pippali- or Pipphaliguhā a cave which became a favourite resort of Mahākassapa,¹⁰ and which was visited by the Buddha,¹¹ Ambasaṇḍa (Skt. Āmrakhaṇḍa), a Brahmin village,¹² and the Laṭṭhivana (Skt. Yaṣṭivana), the royal park of Bimbisāra where the Buddha arrived from Gayāsīsa (the

¹ Cf. Suttanipāta Comm., p. 419.

² Legge's Fā-Hien, pp. 84-5.

<sup>Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, pp. 162-3.
Dīgha Nikāya, I, pp. 47, 49.
Sumangalavilāsinī, I, p. 150; cf. ibid., p. 133.
Legge's Fā-Hien, p. 82.</sup>

Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, p. 150.

8 Ibid., II, p. 151.

⁹ Sāratthappakāsinī, I, pp. 77-8; Samyutta Nikāya, I, p. 110.

¹⁰ Udāna, I, p. 4; Dhammapada Comm., II, pp. 19–21; D. N. Sen, Rājgīr and its neighbourhood, p. 5; Udāna-vaṇṇanā, Siamese Ed., p. 77; Mañjuśrī-Mūlakalþa, Paṭala LIII, p. 588.

¹¹ Legge, Fā-Hien, p. 85; Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, p. 154; Samyutta Nikāya, V, p. 79.

¹² Dīgha Nikāya, II, p. 263; Sumangalavilāsinī, III, p. 697.

main hills of Gayā) and halted with the Jaṭila converts on his way to the city of Rājagṛha.¹ The Pāsānaka-cetiya (Pāsāna-caitya) is famous in Buddhist tradition as the place where the Buddha had delivered the Pārāyaṇa Discourses,² now embodied in the concluding book of the Suttanipāta.³ Other places which find mention in Pāli literature are Macalagāma,⁴ Maṇimālaka-cetiya⁵ and Andhaka-vindha.⁵

The *Majjhima Nikāya* describes Senānigāma, one of the villages of Magadha, as a very nice place having a beautiful forest and a river with transparent water. It was a prosperous village, alms being easily obtainable there.⁷

As already indicated, the later capital of Magadha was Pāṭaliputra, near Patna of the present day, the seat of the Government of Bihar. Its ancient Sanskrit names were Kusumapura and Puṣpapura, from the numerous flowers which grew in the royal enclosure. The Greek historians call it Palibothra, and the Chinese

pilgrims Pa-lin-tou.

Hsüan Tsang, the great Chinese traveller, gives the following account of the legendary origin of the name of the city. Once upon a time, a very learned Brahmin had a large number of disciples. On one occasion a party of these disciples were wandering in a wood, and one youth among them appeared unhappy and disconsolate. To amuse the gloomy youth, his companions arranged a mock marriage for him. A man and a woman were chosen to represent the bridegroom's parents, and another couple, the parents of the imaginary bride. They were all near a Pāṭali tree, which was chosen to symbolise the bride. All the ceremonies of marriage were gone through, and the man acting as father of the bride broke off a branch of the Pāṭali tree and gave it to the bridegroom. When all was over, his companions wanted the pseudo-bridegroom to go with them, but he insisted on remaining near the tree. Here at dusk an old man appeared with his wife and a young maiden, whom he gave

¹ Vinaya, Mahāvagga, I, p. 35; Fausböll, Jātaka, I, pp. 83-5; Samantapāsādikā, Ceylonese Ed., p. 158; D. N. Sen, Rājgīr and its neighbourhood, p. 13; Mahāvastu, III, p. 441; Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, pp. 146-8; see also Ancient Geography of India, p. 529.

² Commentary on the Cullaniddesa, Siamese Ed., p. 270.

⁸ Suttanipāta, pp. 218ff.

⁴ Fausböll, Jātaka, I, pp. 199–206; Dhammapada Comm., I, pp. 265–80; Sumangalavilāsinī, III, pp. 710ff.

⁵ Samyutta Nikāya, I, p. 208.

⁶ Vinaya, Mahāvagga, Ī, p. 109. Andhakavinda was connected with Rājagaha by a cart-road.

⁷ I, pp. 166-7.

to the young student to be his wife. The couple lived together in the forest for a year, when a son was born to them. The student, now tired of the lonely life of the woods, wanted to go back to his home, but the old man, his father-in-law, induced him to remain by promising him a properly built establishment. Afterwards, when the seat of government was removed to this place, it received the name Pāṭaliputra, because it had been built by gods for the son of the Pāṭali tree.¹

According to Jaina tradition, Pāṭaliputra was built by Udaya, son of Darśaka, but the first beginnings were made by Ajātaśatru, for the Buddha, when on his way to Vaiśālī from Magadha, saw Ajātaśatru's ministers measuring out a town.²

Pāṭaliputra was originally a village of Magadha, known as Pāṭaligāma, which lay opposite to Koṭigāma on the other side of the Ganges, which formed a natural boundary between Magadha and the territory of the Vṛji-Licchavis of Vaiśālī. The Magadhan village was one of the halting stations on the high road which extended from Rājagṛha to Vaiśālī and other places. The fortification of Pāṭaligāma which was undertaken in the Buddha's lifetime by the two Brahmin ministers of Magadha, Sunīdha and Vassakāra, led to the foundation of the city of Pāṭaliputra,³ to which the capital of Magadha was removed by Udāyi or Udāyibhadda, the son and successor of Ajātaśatru. Thus it may be established that Ajātaśatru was the real builder of Pāṭaliputra, which was in fact the new Rājagṛha or new capital of Magadha, as distinguished from the old Rājagṛha or Girivraja with its outer area.

This tradition somehow became twisted and led the Chinese pilgrims Fā-Hien and Hsüan Tsang to speak of the 'old city' and the 'new city' of Rājagṛha, both with reference to Girivraja, crediting Ajātaśatru with the building of the 'new city'. Fā-Hien says that a yojana to the west from Nāla, the place of birth and death of Sāriputra, brought him to 'New Rājagṛha, the new city which was built by King Ajātaśatru'. There were then (fifth century A.D.) two monasteries in it. It was enclosed by a wall with four gates. Three hundred paces outside the west gate was the stūpa erected by Ajātaśatru over a portion of the relics of Buddha. Some four li (less than a mile) south from the south gate was the old city of King Bimbisāra, 'a circular space formed by five hills'.4

¹ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. II, p. 87.

² See a paper on *Pāṭaliputra* by H. C. Chakladar in the *Modern Review*, March, 1918, where the traditions about the foundation of Pāṭaliputra are discussed at some length.

⁸ Dīgha Nikāya, II, pp. 86ff.; Sumangalavilāsinī, II, p. 540.

⁴ Legge, Fā-Hien, pp. 81-2.

There may be some truth in the suggestion made by Hsüan Tsang that the cause of removal of the capital was a fire which broke out in the old capital.1

Pataliputra was built near the confluence of the great rivers of Mid-India, the Ganges, Son and Gandak, but now the Son has receded some distance away from it. The city was protected by a moat 600 ft. broad and 30 cubits in depth. At a distance of 24 ft. from the inner ditch there stood a rampart with 570 towers and 64 gates. The Samantapāsādikā informs us that Pataliputra had four gates, Aśoka's income from them being 400,000 kahāpaṇas daily. In the Sabhā (council), he used to get 100,000 kahāpanas daily.2

Pātaliputra was the capital of the later Śiśunāgas, the Nandas, and also of the great Mauryan emperors, Candragupta, and Aśoka, but it ceased to be the ordinary residence of the Gupta sovereigns after the completion of the conquests made by Samudragupta.3

Fā-Hien came to Pāṭaliputra in the fifth century Â.D. Chinese pilgrim was so much impressed by the glory and splendour of the city that he says that 'the royal palace and halls in the midst of the city were all made by spirits which Asoka employed, and which piled up the stones, reared the walls and gates, and executed the elegant carving and inlaid sculpture-work in a way which no human hands of this world could accomplish'. There was in the city a Brahmin named Rādhasāmi, a professor of the Mahāvāna system of Buddhism. By the side of the tope of Aśoka there was also a Hinayana monastery. The inhabitants of the city were rich, prosperous and righteous.4 Fā-Hien further gives an interesting description of a grand Buddhist procession at Pataliputra.⁵

Hsüan Tsang says that south of the Ganges lay an old city above 70 li (about 14 miles) in circuit, the foundations of which were still visible, although the city had long been a wilderness. He notes that it was first called Kusumapura, and then Pātaliputra.6 The poet Dandin speaks of Pataliputra as the foremost of all the cities. and full of gems.7

During the reign of Candragupta Vikramāditya, Pāṭaliputra was still a magnificent and populous city, and was apparently not ruined until the time of the Hun invasion in the sixth century. Harsavardhana, when he ruled N. India as a paramount sovereign (612-47

¹ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, pp. 161-2.

² Samantapāsādikā, I, p. 52.

Samantapāsaarka, 1, p. 52.
 V. A. Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 309.
 Ibid., Chaps. X-XVII.

⁶ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. II, p. 87.

⁷ Dasakumāracaritam, 1st Ucchvāsa, śl. 2, Pūrvapīthikā,

A.D.), made no attempt to restore the old Magadhan Imperial capital, Pāṭaliputra.¹ About 600 A.D. Śaśāṅka Narendragupta, king of Gauḍa and Karṇasuvarṇa, destroyed the 'Buddha's footprints' at Pāṭaliputra, and smashed many Buddhist temples and monasteries.² Dharmapāla, the most powerful of the Pāla kings of Bengal and Bihar, took some steps to renew the glory of Pāṭaliputra, but the interests of the Pāla monarchs seem to have been centred in Bengal rather than in Magadha.³

As might be expected, the Pāli Buddhist literature has references to Pāṭaliputra, but as it had not grown up into a city in the Buddha's lifetime, it does not find such frequent mention as Rājagṛha, the ancient capital. However, on one occasion, the upāsakas of Pāṭaligāma, as it then was, built an Āvasathāgāra (living-house), and they invited the Buddha on the occasion of its opening ceremony. An influential Brahmin householder of Benares named Ghoṭamukha built a vihāra at Pāṭaliputra for Udena, a bhikkhu, and the vihāra was called Ghoṭamukhī. Another bhikkhu, Bhadda, dwelt at Kukkūṭārāma near Pāṭaligāma, and had conversations with Ānanda, the Buddha's famous disciple.

The Dāṭhāvaṃsa contains a long story concerning King Pāṇḍu of Pāṭaliputra, the heretical Nigaṇṭhas, and King Guhasīva, a vassal of Pāṇḍu. In brief, the Nigaṇṭhas went to Pāṇḍu to complain that Guhasīva worshipped the tooth-relic of the Buddha, instead of Pāṇḍu's gods Brahmā; Siva and the rest. Pāṇḍu, angered, sent a subordinate king called Cittayāna to arrest and bring Guhasīva to him with the tooth-relic. However, Cittayāna was converted by Guhasīva to be a follower of the Buddha, and together they went to Pāṭaliputra, where a series of miracles ensued, as every effort made by Pāṇḍu to destroy the relic failed. Finally, King Pāṇḍu was convinced of the relic's miraculous properties, and gave up his false belief.⁷

Sthūlabhadra, leader of some of the Jaina bhikkhus, summoned a council at Pāṭaliputra (about 200 years after Mahāvīra's death), in the absence of Bhadrabāhu and his party, to collect the Jaina sacred literature. Bhadrabāhu on his return refused to accept the work of the Council of Pāṭaliputra.8

¹ Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 310.

² S. C. Vidyābhūsana, History of Indian Logic, p. 349.

³ Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., pp. 310-11.

⁴ Vinayapitaka, I, pp. 226-8.

⁵ Majjhima Nikāya, II, pp. 157 foll.
⁶ Samyutta Nikāya, V, pp. 15-16, 171-2.

See B. C. Law, Dāthāvamsa, Intro., pp. xii-xiv.
 Mrs. Sinclair Stevenson, Heart of Jainism, p. 72.

Pāṭaliputra coins had their own individual marks.¹ The discoveries of punch-marked coins give the death-blow to the theory that all symbols on them 'were affixed haphazard by shroffs and moneyers through whose hands the coins passed', and give rise to the incontestable conclusion that they constitute 'coinages' peculiar to three different provincial towns, one belonging to Taxila, the second to Pāṭaliputra, and the third to Vidiśā (Bhilsā) of Central India.²

The following are the interesting discoveries made by the Archaeological Department of the Government of India at the site of Pātaliputra:—

1. Remains of wooden palisades at Lohanipur, Bulandibagh, Mahārājganj and Mangle's tank.

2. Punch-marked coins found at Golakpur.

3. Didarganj statue.

4. Durukhia Devī and Perso-Ionic capital.

5. The railing pillar probably belonging to the time of the Sungas.

6. Coins of Kushan and Gupta kings.

7. Votive clay tablet found near Purabdarwaza.

8. Remains of Hīnayāna and Mahāyāna monasteries at the time of Fā-Hien, the temples of Sthūlabhadra and other Jaina temples and the temples of Choti and Bari Patan Devīs.³

Nālandā 4 was a famous seat of learning in ancient India. It was a village which Cunningham identifies with modern Baragaon, seven miles north of Rājgir in Bihar.⁵ Nālandā is mentioned in the *Mahāvastu Avadāna* ⁶ as a very prosperous place at no great distance from Rājagrha.

After the nirvāna of the Buddha, five kings, named Śakrāditya, Buddhagupta, Tathāgatagupta, Bālāditya and Vajra, built five saṅghārāmas or monasteries at Nālandā. In the Buddha's time, Nālandā was one of the halting stations on the high road connecting Rājagrha with Pāṭaligāma, Koṭigāma, Vaiśālī, etc. Buddhaghosa knew it as a town at a distance of one yojana (about 7 miles) from

¹ Carmichael Lectures, 1921, p. 100.

² Ibid., p. 99.

⁸ Pāṭaliputra by Manoranjan Ghosh, pp. 14-15.
4 For an interesting account of Nālandā vide Nālandā (J.M.U., Vol. XIII, No. 2)
by K. A. Nilakanta Sāstrī, A. Ghosh, A Guide to Nālandā (Delhi, 1939), Nālandā in Ancient Literature (5th Indian Oriental Conference, 1930) and Harsha (Oxford) by Dr. R. K. Mookerji.

⁵ Cunningham, Ancient Geography, p. 537.

⁶ Vol. III, p. 56.

⁷ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, pp. 164-5.

Rājagṛha.¹ Cunningham identifies the ancient site with the modern village of Baragaon which lies at the northern end of the precincts of the Nālandā Mahāvihāra. The Pāli texts, however, refer not so much to Nālandā itself as to Pāvārika's mango-grove in its vicinity, as the real place of importance both to the Buddhists and the Jainas.² According to the tradition recorded by Hsüan Tsang, 'in a Mango Wood to the south of this monastery was a tank the dragon of which was called Nālandā, and the name was given to the monastery. But the facts of the case were that Ju-lai (Buddha) as a P'usa (Bodhisattva) had once been a king with his capital here, that as king he had been honoured by the epithet Nālandā or 'Insatiable in giving' on account of his kindness and liberality, and that this epithet was given as its name to this monastery'. The grounds of the establishment were originally a mango park bought by 500 merchants for ten koṭis of gold coins and presented by them to the Buddha.³

Nālandā was often visited by the Buddha.4 Mahākassapa. who was at first a follower of a heretical teacher, met the Buddha for the first time while he was seated on the road between Raiagrha and Nālandā. He declared himself a follower of the Buddha. Majjhima Nikāva tells us that once Nigantha Nātaputta was at Nālandā with a large retinue of his followers. A Jaina named Dīghatapassī went to the Buddha, who was in the Pāvārika ambavana at Nālandā, and the Buddha converted many of Mahāvīra's followers.6 In the Iaina Sūtras we read that there was at Nālandā a householder named Lepa who was rich and prosperous. Lepa had a beautiful bathing hall containing many hundreds of pillars. There was a park called Hastivāma. Once Gautama Buddha lived at Nālandā. He had a discussion with Udaka, a nigantha and follower of Pārśva, who failed to accept Gautama's views as to the effect of karma.7 It was at Nālandā that Mahāvīra spent the second year of his asceticism, and here, too, that he found many rich supporters. The Kalpa-sūtra (p. 122) informs us that Mahāvīra spent as many as fourteen rainy seasons at Rajagrha and Nalanda.

According to Tibetan accounts, the quarter in which the Nālandā University, with its grand library, was located, was called Dharmagañja (Piety Mart). It consisted of three grand buildings called

¹ Sumangalavilāsinī, III, p. 873; I, p. 35: Rājagahato pana Nālandā yojanam eva.

² Majjhima Nikāya, I, p. 371.

³ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, p. 164.

⁴ See, e.g. *Dīgha Nikāya*, I, pp. 1ff., 211; *ibid.*, II, pp. 81-4; *Saṃyutta Nikāya*, IV, p. 110, 311ff., 314-7.

⁵ Samyutta Nikāya, II, pp. 219ff.

⁶ Majjhima Nikāya, I, pp. 371ff.

⁷ S.B.E., II, pp. 419-20.

Ratnasāgara, Ratnodadhi and Ratnarañjaka respectively.¹ Dharmapāla, a native of Kañcipura in Drāviḍa (modern Conjeeveram in Madras) studied at the University of Nālandā and acquired great distinction. In course of time he became the head of the University.² Sīlabhadra, a Brahmin, came of the family of the king of Samataṭa (Bengal). He was a pupil of Dharmapāla, and in course of time he too became the head of the University.³ The Chinese pilgrim, I-tsing, who started for India in 671 A.D., arrived at Tāmralipti at the mouth of the Hooghly in 673 A.D. He studied Buddhist literature at Nālandā.⁴ He relates that venerable and learned priests of the Nālandā monastery used to ride in sedan chairs, never on horseback.⁵

According to Dr. S. C. Vidyābhūṣana, the year 450 A.D. is the earliest limit which we can roughly assign to the royal recognition of Nālandā.

Besides Nālandā, Magadha had other great seats of Buddhist learning which attracted students from all parts of India and beyond, such as the Universities of Odantapuri and Vikramaśilā. In the eighth century A.D., Gopāla, the founder of the Pāla dynasty of Bengal, founded a great monastery at Uddandapura or Otantapuri in Bihar. As a University, the glories of Vikramaśilā were hardly inferior to those of Nālandā. Hither too came students from Tibet, and Tibetan works tell us how Dīpankara or Śrījñāna Atīsa, a native of Bengal, who was at the head of the University from 1034–8 A.D., was induced to go to Tibet and establish the Buddhist religion there.8

The Vikramaśilā Vihāra was a Buddhist monastery situated on a bluff hill on the right bank of the Ganges, and had sufficient space within it for a congregation of 8,000 men with many temples and buildings. On the top of the projecting steep hill of Pātharghāṭā, there are the remains of a Buddhist monastery, and the space covered by the ruins is large enough to hold an assembly of many thousands of people. This Pātharghāṭā was the ancient Vikramaśilā. It is said to have included 107 temples and 6 colleges. This University was known for its output of numerous commentaries. It was a centre

¹ History of Indian Logic, p. 516; see also H. D. Sankalia, The University of Nālandā (Madras, 1934).

² Ibid., p. 302; Beal, Buddhist Records of the Western World, II, p. 110.

Beal, Buddhist Records of the Western World, II, p. 110.
 I-tsing, Records of the Buddhist Religion, Intro., p. xvii.

⁵ Ibid., p. 30.

⁶ History of Indian Logic, pp. 514-5.

⁷ Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 413; cf. Eliot, Hinduism and Buddhism, Vol. II, p. 111.

⁸ Journal of the Buddhist Text Society, Vol. I. ⁹ J.A.S.B., New Series, Vol. V, No. I, pp. 1-13.

¹⁰ Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 414.

not only of tantric learning but of logic and grammar, and is interesting as showing the connection between Bengal and Tibet.¹ King Dharmapāla endowed the University with rich grants sufficing for the maintenance of 108 resident monks, besides numerous non-resident monks and pilgrims. At the head of the University, there was always a most learned and pious sage. Thus, at the time of Dharmapāla, Ācārya Buddhajñānapāda directed the affairs of the University. Grammar, metaphysics (including logic) and ritualistic books were especially studied at Vikramaśilā. On the walls of the University were painted images of panditas (learned men) eminent for their learning and character. The distinguished scholars of the University received diplomas of pandita from the king himself. The most erudite sages were appointed to guard the gates of the University, which were six in number.

The University of Vikramaśilā is said to have been destroyed by the Moḥammedan invader, Bakhtiar Khalji, about 1203 A.D., when

Śākya Śrī Pandita of Kashmir was at its head.2

Like princes of most other Indian States, Magadhan princes were frequently educated at Taxila. One Magadhan prince, Duyyodhana, as we learn from the Jātaka, went to Taxila to learn the arts. He later became king, and used to give alms to Śramaṇas, Brāhmaṇas and others, observe the precepts and perform many meritorious deeds.³ The Dārimukha and Sankhapāla Jātakas have references to the education of Magadhan princes at Taxila.⁴

Magadha was the birthplace of Jīvaka, the famous physician, who educated himself at Taxila and on his return to his native city was appointed physician to the royal family. His success in operating on King Bimbisāra won for him the post of royal physician, and the king later appointed him physician to the Buddha and the congregation of bhikkhus. Once, we are told, Magadha was badly attacked by five kinds of diseases, and Jīvaka had to treat the suffering bhikkhus.

The Jātakas are full of interesting information about Magadha. From them we learn that Magadha was famous for conch shells⁷; that white elephants were used there by the royal family ⁸; that agriculture was prosperous, and that some Brahmins used to cultivate

¹ Eliot, Hinduism and Buddhism, Vol. II, p. 111.

² S. C. Vidyābhūṣaṇa, History of Indian Logic, pp. 519-20.

³ Jātaka (Fausböll), V, pp. 161-2.

⁴ III (Fausböll), pp. 238-40. Needless to say, the *Jātaka* contains many stories of supposed previous incarnations of the Buddha, in the course of which he was born in Magadha, e.g. III, pp. 238-40; I, pp. 199, 213, 373.

⁵ Vinaya Pitaka, I, pp. 71 foll.

⁶ *Ibid.*, I, p. 71.

⁷ Jātaka (Fausböll), VI, p. 465.

⁸ *Ibid.*, I, p. 444.

land themselves in Magadha.¹ The Vinaya Piṭaka states that the fields of Magadha were well divided for the purpose of cultivation.² We have already noted that there were stated to be 80,000 villages in Magadha in King Bimbisāra's time. A story reminiscent of the Fools of Gotham is that of a particular village inhabited by fools who once went to the forest where they used to work for their livelihood. They had to pay the penalty for their foolishness by losing their lives while trying to destroy mosquitoes with bows and arrows.³

The Lakkhana Jātaka refers to the destruction of paddy by deer which used to come to the field during the harvest. The Magadhans laid traps and devised various other means to capture and kill them.

The Anguttara Nikāva mentions Magadha as one of the sixteen great janapadas or provinces of ancient India, stating that it was full of seven kinds of gems, and had immense wealth and power.5 Hsüan Tsang gives a fair account of Magadha in the seventh century A.D. According to him, the country was 5,000 li in circuit. There were few inhabitants in the walled cities but the other towns were fully populated. The soil was rich and yielded luxurious crops. It produced a kind of rice with large grain of extraordinary fragrance. The land was low and moist, and the towns were on plateaux. From the beginning of summer to the middle of autumn, the plains were flooded, and boats could be used. The climate was hot, and the inhabitants were honest, esteemed learning, and revered Buddhism. There were above 50 Buddhist monasteries and more than 10,000 ecclesiastics, for the most part adherents of the Mahāyāna system. There were some deva temples, and the adherents of the various sects were numerous.6

On account of Magadha's predominant political position, the language spoken there obtained recognition all over India in very early times. The *Mahāvaṃsa* goes so far as to tell us that the Māgadhī language is the root of all Indian languages. It was in this Māgadhī language that Buddhaghosa translated the Sinhalese commentary on the *Tripiṭaka*. At the time of Aśoka, as the numerous inscriptions scattered all over India show, the dialect of Magadha must have been understood over the greater part of India.

¹ Jātaka (Fausböll), IV, pp. 276-7. Cf. the Story of Bharadvāja.

² Vinaya Piṭaka, I, p. 287.
³ Makasa Jātaka; Jātaka, I, p. 246.

⁴ Jātaka (Fausböll), I, p. 143; cf. ibid., p. 154.

⁵ I, 213; IV, 252, 256, 260. Cf. Mahāvastu, ed. Senart, II, p. 419. ⁶ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, pp. 86-7; Beal, Buddhist Records of the Western World, II, pp. 82-3.

 ⁷ Cūlavamsa, 37, vs. 230, 242-4: Sabbesam mūlabhāsāya Māgadhāya niruttiyā.
 ⁸ B. C. Law, The Life and Work of Buddhaghosa, p. 37.

CHAPTER XLVII

THE VIDEHAS

The Videhas are mentioned in the Brāhmaṇa portion of the Vedas as a people in a very advanced stage of civilisation. The part of the country where they lived appears to have been known by the name of Videha even in the still more ancient times of the Saṃhitās, for the Yajurveda Saṃhitās mention the cows of Videha, which appear to have been particularly famous in ancient India.¹

According to Julius Eggeling, a confederacy of kindred peoples known as the Kośala-Videhas, occupying a position of no less importance than that of the Kuru-Pañcālas, lived to the east of the Madhyadeśa at the time of the redaction of the Brāhmaṇas. The legendary account is that these people claimed Videgha Māthava as their common ancestor, and the two branches are said to have been separated from each other by the river Sadānīrā (corresponding either to the Rāpti or to the Gandak). In Eggeling's opinion, the Videha country in those days constituted the extreme east of the land of the Aryans.² Dr. Weber notes that the Aryans, led by Videgha Māthava and his priest, apparently pushed up the river Sarasvatī as far east as the river Sadānīrā which formed the western boundary of the Videhas, or more probably the Gandak (?=Sadānīrā) which was the boundary between the Kośalas and the Videhas.³

The Videha country, as we have seen, is said to have derived its name from this King Videgha Mathāva or Videha Mādhava, who introduced the sacrificial fire; and according to some, this introduction of the sacrificial fire is symbolical of the inauguration of the Brahmanical faith in the region. This legend, which is of importance in connection with the question of Aryan settlement in the Videha country, may be read in full in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa. According to this account, King Māthava Videgha carried Agni Vaiśvānara (=fire) in his mouth. When invited to do so, Agni sprang forth, and started to flash over the ground, burning it up. Starting from the river Sarasvatī, he went burning along towards the east, drying up all the rivers. Only he did not burn over the river Sadānīrā,

¹ The commentator of the *Taittirīya Saṃhitā* explains the adjective *Vaidehī* by *Višiṣṭa-deha-saṃbandhinī*, 'having a splendid body' (see *Vedic Index*, Vol. II, p. 298 and Keith's *Veda of the Black Yajus' School*, Vol. I, p. 138).

² Satapatha Brāhmana, S.B.E., Vol. XII, Intro. XLII-XLIII.

³ S.B.E., Vol. XII, p. 104 f.

flowing from the Northern (Himalaya) mountain. 'That one of the Brāhmaṇas did not cross in former times, thinking, "It has not been burnt over by Agni Vaiśvānara". Nowadays, however (i.e. in the time of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa), there are many Brāhmaṇas to the east of it....Māthava, the Videgha, then said (to Agni), "Where am I to abide?" "To the east of this (river) be thy abode", said he. Even now this (river) forms the boundary of the Kośalas and the Videhas; for these are the Māthavas (or descendants of Māthava).' 1

Great importance has rightly been attached to this passage which, since the days of Professor Weber, has been taken by scholars to indicate the progress of Vedic Aryan civilisation from N.W. India towards the east. Though we cannot be sure about this point, yet it shows at least that in which times the Satapatha Brāhmana considers ancient, the Videha country had received Vedic civilisation, and the cult of offering sacrifices in fire had developed there. According to tradition, the Satapatha Brāhmana was compiled in the Videha country by Yājñavalkya who flourished at the court of the Emperor (Samrāt) Janaka, though parts of it bear testimony to its having originated like the other great Brāhmaṇa in the country lying farther to the west.

In the later Mantra period, Videha must have been organised so far as to take a leading part in Vedic culture, and the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa clearly indicates that the great spiritual and intellectual lead offered by Samrāṭ Janaka and Rṣi Yājñavalkya was accepted by the whole of N. India. Rṣis from the Kuru-Pañcāla regions flocked to the court of Janaka and took part in the discussions held about the supreme Brahman; and they had to admit the superior knowledge of Yājñavalkya. In our opinion, the Videha country must have received Vedic culture long before the time of the compilation of this Brāhmaṇa, for we find in the Bṛhadāranyaka Upaniṣad which forms a part of it, that Samrāṭ Janaka of Videha was a great patron of Vedic culture, and that Rṣis from the whole of N. India repaired to his court.²

From the *Bṛhadāraṇyaka* account, it would seem that at the time of the *Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa* the Videha Brāhmaṇas were superior to the Kuru-Pañcālas as regards the Upaniṣadic phase of the development of Vedic culture.

In other works of the *Brāhmaṇa* period as well as of the *Sūtra* period that followed, other celebrated kings of Videha are mentioned (vide *Vedic Index*, II, 298), so that there can be no question but that

¹ Satapatha Brāhmana, transl. Eggeling, S.B.E., XII, pp. 104-6.

² Cf., for example, the story of Yājñavalkya and the cows, Brh. Up., III, 1-9.

the Videhas maintained a high position in Vedic society at least in the Brāhmaṇa period, and from the superior intellectual position that they had attained in this period it is legitimate to assume that Vedic Aryan culture had taken its root in Videha long before the Brāhmaṇa age, and most probably in the early Saṃhitā age of the Rgveda.

The Jātaka stories, too, refer to sacrifices performed by the Videhan kings, saying that goats were sacrificed in the name of religion. We are told in the Purāṇas that Nimi, Ikṣvāku's son, performed a sacrifice for a thousand years, with the help of Vaśiṣtha who had previously officiated as high-priest at a certain Yajña

performed by Indra.2

The evidence of the Adhyātma Rāmāyana also testifies to the sacrificial activities of the Videhan royal family. Viśvāmitra is represented as saying to Rāma: 'We are going to Mithilā, of which Janaka is the ruler. After attending the great Yajña of Janaka we shall make for Avodhvā'.

Coming to the Epic age, we find Rāmacandra, the hero of the Rāmāyaṇa, marrying Vaidehī (= Sītā), the adopted daughter of Janaka, king of Mithilā.⁴ This Janaka is probably not the same person as the patron of Yājñavalkya; it appears that several sovereigns of the dynasty bore that name which had been rendered glorious by the intellectual and political powers of the Vedic king. The Rāmāyaṇa gives a splendid picture of the Videhan capital and the wide and richly equipped sacrificial ground of King Janaka.

The distance between Mithilā and Ayodhyā may be gauged from the fact that during the reign of Janaka, king of Videha, it took Viśvāmitra, together with Rāma and Lakṣmaṇa, four days to reach Mithilā from Ayodhyā. On the way they rested for one night only, at Viśālā.⁵ The messengers sent by Janaka reached Daśaratha's capital in three days of very fast travelling; while Daśaratha on his journey to the Videhan capital in his chariot took four days. Mithilā is identified by tradition with the modern Janakapura in the hills in the present Nepalese territories; a large number of pilgrims visit it every year.

Videha, its capital, Mithilā, and its King Janaka are mentioned many times in the *Mahābhārata*. After Yudhiṣṭhira's accession to the throne of Indraprastha, before the Rājasūya sacrifice, Bhīma

Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. I, pp. 166ff.
 Vişnupurāna, p. 246 (Vangavāsī edition).

³ Adhyātma Rāmāyaṇa, Bālakāṇḍa, Chap. VII, p. 68, Kāli Saṅkara Vidyāratna's edition.

Rāmāyana, Bālakānda (Bombay edition), Chap. 73.
 Rāmāyana (Vangavāsī edition), 1-3.

defeated the king of the Videha people in the course of his digvijaya.1 Karna also conquered Mithila, the Videha capital, during his digvijaya.2 The celebrated sacrifice of Janaka is referred to in several places,3 while a conversation between Janaka and Yājñavalkya is related in the Sāntiparvan (Chap. 311). There are many references to Janaka's spiritual enlightenment, his talks with Pañca-śikha, with Sulabhā and others, and the teaching imparted by him to the young Suka.4 Kṛṣṇa, together with Bhīmasena and Arjuna, visited Mithila on his way from Indraprastha to Rajagrha.5 The Videhas are mentioned twice in the list of peoples in the Bhīsmaparvan: once as Videhas along with the Magadhas, and once as Vaidehas along with the Tamraliptakas.

The Visnupurāna also mentions the Videha country, furnishes a list of its rulers from ancient times, and gives a fanciful account of the origin of the name of Videha and also that of Mithila, the capital. The story goes that Vasistha, having performed the sacrifice of Indra, proceeded to Mithila to commence the sacrifice of King Nimi. On reaching there he found that the king had engaged Gautama to perform the sacrificial rites. Seeing the king asleep he cursed him thus: 'King Nimi will be bodiless (videha, vi-vigatadeha), inasmuch as he having rejected me has engaged Gautama'. The king on awakening cursed Vasistha, saying that he too would perish, as he had cursed a sleeping king. Rsis churned the dead body of Nimi, and as a result of the churning a child was born, afterwards known as Mithi 6 (supposedly from manth, to churn). According to the Bhavisyapurāna, Nimi's son Mithi founded a beautiful city which was named Mithila after him. From the fact of his having founded the city, he came to be known as Janaka ('begetter, creator').7 The Mahāgovinda Suttanta of the Dīgha Nikāya gives another account of the origin of Mithila, stating that it was built by Govinda.8

Undoubtedly the most important Videhan king was Janaka, but we find references to other kings in ancient literature, namely Sāgaradeva, Bharata, Angīrasa, Ruci, Suruci, Patāpa, Mahāpatāpa,

¹ Sabhāparvan, Chap. 30.

² Vanaparvan, 254.

⁸ *Ibid.*, Chaps. 132, 134, etc. 4 Sāntiparvan, Chap. 327, etc.

⁵ Sabhāparvan, 20.

⁶ Vișnupurăna, pp. 388ff. See also Bhāgavatapurāna, IX, 24, 64.

⁷ Bhavisyapurāna: 'Nimeh Putrastu tatraiva . . purijanana sāmarthāt Janakah sa ca kīrtitah'. See also Bhāgavatapurāna, IX, 13, 13, where the story of the founding of Mithila is also related.

⁸ P.T.S., Vol. II, p. 235.

⁹ For the story of Suruci's childless queen, see Jātaka (Fausböll), IV, pp. 314 foll.

Sudassana, Neru, Mahāsammata, Mucala, Mahāmucala, two Kalyāṇas,¹ Śatadhanu of ill-fame,² Makhādeva, Sādhina and others.

Kings of Videha usually maintained friendly relations with neighbouring powers. We have already referred to the marriage of Sītā and Rāmacandra, son of Daśaratha, king of Kośala. Instances of matrimonial alliances concluded by the kings of Videha with the neighbouring royal families occur also in later literature. Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar points out that in the plays of Bhāsa, Udayana is called Vaidehīputra, indicating that his mother was a princess of Videha. In the Buddhist literature we have a reference to a Videhan princess (no doubt a queen of Bimbisāra), who was the mother of Ajātaśatru. Her name was Vāsavī. 4

Vardhamāna Mahāvīra, the great founder of Jainism, 'a Videha, son of Videhadattā, a native of Videha, a prince of Videha, had lived thirty years in Videha when his parents died'. Mithilā was his favourite resort, and he spent six monsoons there.

At the time when the Buddha preached his gospel, we find the ancient Videha country cut up into parts, the Licchavis occupying the foremost position. Eight peoples are named as making up the Vajjian confederacy, the Licchavis and the Videhas occupying a prominent position. The confederacy, according to Kauṭilya, was a 'rājaśabdopajīvī' Saṅgha.⁷ Videha was twenty-four yojanas in length from the river Kauśikī to the river Gaṇḍak, and sixteen yojanas in breadth from the Ganges to the Himalayas.⁸ The capital of Videha, Mithilā, was situated about thirty-five miles north-west from Vesālī.⁹

It is stated in the Jātakas that the city of Mithilā was seven leagues, and the kingdom of Videha 300 leagues in extent. It was the capital of the kings Janaka and Makhādeva, in the district now called Tirhut. The city of Mithilā in Jambudvīpa had plenty of elephants, horses, chariots, oxen, sheep and all kinds of wealth of this nature, together with gold, silver, gems, pearls and other precious things. From a Jātaka description, we learn that the

¹ Mahāvamsa, P.T.S., Chap. II, p. 12. Kalyāṇakāduve.

² Vișnu Purăna, Pt. III, Chap. XVIII, p. 217. (Vangavāsī Ed.) ³ Carmichael Lectures, 1918, pp. 58, 59. Udayana is addressed as Vaidehīputra (S.V., Act 6, p. 68, Ganapati Šāstrī's Ed.).

⁴ Rockhill, Life of the Buddha, pp. 63-4.

⁵ Jaina Sūtras, S.B.E., Vol. XXII, Pt. 1, p. 256.
6 Ibid., p. 264.

⁷ Arthasāstra, trsl. Shāma Sāstrī, p. 455. See also Licchavi chapter.

⁸ Brhat Vișnupurăna.

Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 26.

¹⁰ Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. III, p. 365: Tiyojanasatike.

Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 37.

¹² Beal, Romantic Legend of Sakya Buddha, p. 30.

kingdom of Videha had 16,000 villages, storehouses filled, and 16,000 dancing girls.¹ Magnificent royal carriages could be seen, drawn by four horses; and the Videhan king was driven in state around his capital.²

In the Si-Yu-Ki (Buddhist Records of the Western World) we find that the Chinese traveller Hsüan Tsang, describing the kingdom of Fo-li-shi (Vrji), says that the capital of the country was Chenshu-na. Beal quotes V. de St. Martin who connects the name Chen-shu-na with Janaka and Janakapura (= Mithilā).

From very early times, Videha was frequented by merchants. At the time of Buddha Gautama we find people coming from Śrāvastī to Videha to sell their wares.⁴

The Videhas were a charitable people. Many institutions of charity were in existence in their country, and we are told that six hundred thousand pieces were spent daily in alms-giving.⁵

The Jātaka stories often make extravagant demands upon popular credence, as when they relate how the average length of human life at the time of the Buddha Gautama was thirty thousand years. More fortunate than the average mortal, King Makhādeva of Mithilā had a lease of life of eighty-four thousand years, in the earlier portion of which he amused himself as a royal prince. Later on, he was appointed a Viceroy, and last of all became king. We come to a more sober estimate when we find it related that there lived in Mithilā a Brāhman named Brahmāyu, aged one hundred and twenty years, who was well versed in the Vedas, Itihāsas, Vyākaraṇa, Lokāyata, and was endowed with all the marks of a great man.

Polygamy appears to have been in vogue among the kings of Videha. Brahmadatta, king of Benares, had a daughter named Sumedhā whom he declined to give in marriage to a Videhan prince who had a large number of wives, fearing that her co-wives would make her life miserable.8

Many writers bear testimony to the devotion and faithfulness of Videhan princesses. The story of Sītā is too well-known to be repeated. Again, it is stated in the *Amitāyurdhyāna Sūtra* that when Ajātaśatru arrested his father Bimbisāra at the instigation of

Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. III, p. 365.
 Beal, Records of the Western World, Vol. II, p. 78, n. The actual words are:
 ... Janaka and Janakapura, capital of Mithilā'; but, as we have seen, Mithilā is identified with Janakapura.

⁴ See, e.g. Dhammapāla's Paramatthadīpanī on the Theragāthā, Pt. III, pp. 277-8.

Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. IV, p. 355. Šee also Makhādeva Jātaka.
 Ibid., Vol. I, p. 139.

Majjhima Nikāya, Vol. II, pp. 133-4.
 Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. IV, pp. 314 foll.

Devadatta, and confined him in a room with seven walls, declaring that none must approach him, Vaidehī (i.e. Videhan princess), the queen-mother, kept him alive (until she was discovered), by concealing food and drink for him.1

We read in one of the Jatakas that the people of Videha once

reproached their king for his childlessness.2

The kings of Mithila were men of high culture. We have already referred to Janaka, the great Rajarsi of the Brahmanic period. In the Buddhist age, we find Sumitra, king of Mithila, devoted to the practice and study of the 'true law'.3 King Videha of Mithila had four sages to instruct him in law 4; and we read 5 that the son of this King Videha was educated at Taxila, the usual seat of learning for young men of noble birth.6

Stories regarding the religious tendencies of the royal family of Videha are frequently found in ancient literature,—see, e.g. the story of King Nimi and the hawk, Jātaka, III, p. 230. Another Jātaka story relates that Videha, king of Videha, and the Bodhisattva. then king of Gandhara, were on friendly terms, although they had never met. Once, on the fast day of the full-moon, the king of Gandhāra took a vow to keep the five moral precepts, and delivered before his ministers a discourse on the substance of the law. At that moment the demon Rahu was overshadowing the full-moon's orb so that the moon's light was dimmed by an eclipse. The king observing the phenomenon thought that all trouble came from outside: he considered his royal retinue was nothing but a trouble, and that it was not proper that he should lose his light like the moon seized by Rāhu. He thereupon made over his kingdom to his ministers, took to a religious life, and having attained transcendental powers, spent the rainy season in the Himalayan regions. devoting himself to the delights of meditation.

When the king of Videha heard of the religious life of the king of Gandhāra, he abdicated his throne, went to the Himalayan region and became a hermit. The two ex-kings lived together in peace and friendliness without knowing each other's antecedents. The ascetic of Videha waited upon the ascetic of Gandhara. One day, they witnessed an eclipse of the moon, and this was the indirect cause of their recognising each other as former fellow kings.⁷

¹ S.B.E., Vol. XLIX, pp. 161-201.

Jātaka (Fausböll), V, pp. 279-80.
 Beal, Romantic Legend of Śākya Buddha, p. 30.

⁵ *Ibid.*, Vol. II, p. 39. 4 Jātaka (Fausböll), VI, p. 333. 6 See my paper: 'Taxila as a seat of learning in the Pāli Literature', J.A.S.B.. Vol. XII, 1916.

⁷ Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. III, pp. 365-6.

We have already referred to the long life of King Makhādeva of Mithilā. One day this king, on his barber showing him a grey hair from his head, thought that his days were numbered. Handing over his kingdom to his son, the old king became a recluse, and developed very high spiritual powers.¹

Sādhina, a righteous king in Mithilā, kept the five śīlas and observed the fast-day vows. His virtue was praised by the princes of heaven who sat in the 'Justice Hall' of Sakra, and all the gods desired to see him. Accordingly, Sakra ordered Mātali to bring Sādhina to heaven in his own chariot. Mātali went to the kingdom of Videha on the day of the full-moon, driving his celestial chariot side by side with the moon's disc. All the people shouted, 'See, two moons are in the sky'. Then, when the chariot came nearer, they saw what it was, and concluded that it had come for their virtuous king. Mātali went to the king's door and made a sign that he should ascend the chariot. After arranging for the distribution of alms, the king went with Mātali. One-half of the city of gods and twenty-five millions of nymphs, and a half of the palace of Vaijavanta were given to Sadhina by Sakra; and the king lived there in happiness for seven hundred years. But when his merits were exhausted, dissatisfaction arose in him, and he did not wish to remain in heaven any longer. The king was carried back to Mithila, where he distributed alms for seven days. On the seventh day he died, and was reborn in the heaven of the thirty-three (gods).2

Sakra is concerned in another legendary story about the Videhan royal family. Suruci, king of Mithilā, had a wife named Sumedhā who was childless. Sumedhā prayed for a son. She took the eightfold sabbath vows (aṭṭhasīlanī), and sat meditating upon the virtues; and Śakra appeared to her and granted her boon.³

¹ Jātaka (Fausböll), I, pp. 137-8. In the Makhādeva Sutta (Majjhima Nikāya, Vol. II, pp. 74-83) we find the same story with slight variations. Nimi, a later king, was like Makhādeva. Indra with other gods came to him and praised him. When Nimi reached the Assembly Hall of the gods, he was received cordially by Indra, and sent back to his kingdom in a celestial chariot.

² Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. IV, pp. 355-6.

³ *Ibid.*, Vol. IV, pp. 315 foll.

CHAPTER XLVIII

THE JNATRKAS

The Jñātrkas (also known as the Nātha or Nāya clan) gave India one of its greatest religious reformers, Mahavīra, the last Tirthankara of the Jains, and this is their sole claim to fame among ancient Indian tribes.

The Jñātrkas, or Ksatriyas of the Jñātri (or Nāya) clan, used to dwell in Vaiśālī (Basārh), Kundagrāma and its suburb Kollāga, and Vānijyagrāma.¹ The Cambridge History of India² states that Kundagrāma was a suburb just outside Vaiśalī, probably surviving in the modern village of Basukund. Mrs. Sinclair Stevenson (Heart of Jainism, pp. 21-2) says that some 2,000 years ago, in Basarh, the same divisions existed as would be found today, and there, in fact, the priestly (Brāhmana), warrior (Ksatriya) and commercial (Vāniyā or Vānijvā) communities lived so separately that their quarters were sometimes spoken of as though they had been distinct villages, as Vaiśālī, Kundagrāma and Vāņijyagrāma. Strangely enough, she adds, it was not in their own but in the Ksatriya ward that Mahāyīra was to be the great hero of the commercial class. We are not prepared to accept Mrs. Stevenson's statement that Vaiśālī was exclusively a Brahmin settlement, in the absence of positive evidence.

The Jain writers give an idealised picture of the Jñātrkas, telling us that they were afraid of sin, abstained from wicked deeds, did no mischief to any being, and therefore did not partake of meat. Dr. Hoernle says4: 'Outside their settlement at Kollaga, the Iñatrkas possessed a religious establishment (or Cheïya) which bore the name Like most Cheïyas, tit consisted of a park enclosing a shrine, hence in the Vipāka Sūtra it is called the Duïpalāsa Park (Ujjāna)'. The Nāya clan seems to have supported a body of monks who followed Pārśvanātha, an ascetic, who lived some 250 years before Mahāvīra.6 It is stated in the *Uvāsagadasāo* that Mahāvīra's parents (and with them probably the whole clan of Nāya Ksatriyas) are said to have been followers of the tenets of Parśvanatha. Mahāvīra, who was taken to be the successor of Pārśvanātha, appeared, the members of his clan became his devoted followers.

¹ Uvāsagadasāo (Hoernle), Vol. II, p. 4, f.n.

⁸ Jaina Sūtras, Pt. II, S.B.E., Vol. XLV, p. 416.

⁴ Uvāsagadasāo, Vol. II, pp. 4 and 5, f.n.

⁶ Mrs. Stevenson, Heart of Jainism, p. 31.

² Vol. I, p. 157.

⁵ = Skt. Chaitya, shrine.

Dr. Hoernle says that Vaiśālī, one of the settlements of the Jñātṛkas, was an oligarchic republic, the government of which was 'vested in a senate composed of the heads of the resident Kṣatriya clans and presided over by an officer who had the title of king and was assisted by a Viceroy and a Commander-in-chief'. Mrs. S. Stevenson says that the government of Vaiśālī seems to have resembled that of a Greek State.²

In the early sixth century B.C., the chief of the Kṣatriya Nātha clan was Siddhartha who married Triśala, sister of Cetaka, the most eminent among the Licchavi princes. Siddhārtha and Triśalā were the parents of Mahāvīra, who lived from approximately 570-500 B.C. (See B. C. Law, Mahāvīra: His Life and Teachings, p. 53). Siddhartha Dr. Hoernle says: 'Though, as may be expected, the Sacred Books of the Jains speak of him in exaggerated terms, they do not, I believe, ever designate him as "the king of Kundapura or Kundagāma"; on the contrary, he is, as a rule, only called the Khattiya Siddhattha (Siddhatthe Khattiye) and only exceptionally he is referred to simply as King Siddhattha. This is perfectly consistent with his position as the chief of the Kshatriyas of Kollāga. Accordingly, Mahāvīra himself was born in Kollāga and naturally when he assumed the monk's vocation, he retired to the Cheïya of his own clan, called Duïpalāsa and situated in the neighbourhood of his native place, Kollāga.' Mahāvīra, on renouncing the world, probably first joined Pārśva's sect of which, however, he soon became a reformer and chief himself.4

A detailed sketch of the life and work of Mahāvīra would fill a volume and is beyond the scope of the present treatise.⁵ We may, however, mention the fact that it was Mahāvīra who brought the Jñātṛkas into intimate touch with the neighbouring communities of eastern India and developed a religion which is still professed by millions of Indians. Another celebrity of the Jñātṛka clan was Ānanda, a staunch follower of Mahāvīra. The story of Ānanda and his wife Śivanandā is related in the *Uvāsagadasāo*.⁶

¹ Uvāsagadasāo, Ed. Hoernle, Vol. II, p. 6.

² Heart of Jainism, p. 22.

Uvāsagadasāo, Vol. II, pp. 5-6.
 For an account of Mahāvīra, see B. C. Law: Mahāvīra: His Life and Teachings.

⁶ Vol. II, tr. pp. 7-9.

CHAPTER XLIX

THE SAKYAS

The Sākyas have acquired great importance in Indian history owing to the Buddha having been born among them. Before the birth of the founder of Buddhism, the Sākyas were comparatively little known; yet in the rugged fastnesses of the lower Himalayas, they had already built up a remarkable though not a very powerful

principality.

The traditional story of the Buddha's birth starts with a discussion among the Devaputras in the Tuṣita heaven, as to which of the great royal families of India the Bodhisattva should honour with his birth. In this discussion, the Śākyas were not mentioned. The Devaputras pondered over the merits of the sixteen Mahājanapadas of Jambudvīpa (India), and analysed the claims of all the important royal families of the day, but found them all stained with one black spot or another. Being at a loss to find a people worthy of claiming him as their congener, the Devaputras at length had recourse to the Bodhisattva himself, and when finally the Śākyas were chosen as the recipient of that great honour, it was rather on account of their moral qualities.¹

The Sākyas of Kapilavastu claimed to be Kṣatriyas. As soon as they heard the news of the Buddha's passing away, they demanded a portion of his relics, saying, 'Bhagavā amhākaṃ ñāti-seṭṭho'² ('the Blessed One was the chief (or best) of our kinsmen'). While all the other Kṣatriya clans that claimed a portion of the Buddha's ashes did so on the grounds of their belonging to the same caste (Bhagavā pi Khattiyo, mayampi Khattiyā), in the case of the Sākyas the claim was founded upon a closer relationship, that of

consanguinity.

The origin of the Śākyas is traced back to King Okkāka, i.e. Ikṣvāku. It is stated in the Sumangalavilāsinī that King Okkāka had five queens. By the chief queen, he had four sons and five daughters. After the death of the chief queen, he married another lady who extorted from him the promise to place her son upon the throne. The king thereupon requested his other sons to leave the kingdom. The princes, accompanied by their sisters, accordingly

<sup>Lalitavistara, Ed. Lefmann, pp. 26-7.
Dīgha Nikāya (P.T.S.), Vol. IĮ, p. 165.</sup>

³ Sumangalavilāsinī, Pt. I, pp. 258-60.

left the kingdom, and going to a forest near the Himalayas, they began to search for a site to build a city. In the course of their search, they met the sage Kapila who said that they should build a town in the place where he lived. The princes duly built the town, and named it Kapilavatthu (Kapilavastu). In course of time, the four brothers married four of the sisters (excepting the eldest one), and the family came to be known as the Sakvas.

This story is evidently fanciful. Sister-marriage was not in vogue in ancient India even in the earliest times of which we have any record, as the story of Yama and Yami in the Rgveda amply demonstrates. The descent from King Okkāka, however, may be based on fact. The Mahāvaṃsa too traces the origin of the Śākyas to Okkāka, and gives their genealogy in great detail, going back to Mahāsammata of the same dynasty.

There can be no doubt that King Okkāka in this genealogy is no other than Iksvāku of the so-called solar dynasty of the Purāṇas. Comparing the names with those in the Pauranic list, we find that the lists do not agree in every detail, but there is agreement with regard to some of the more prominent names. Thus, for example, in the long history of the solar dynasty given in the Visnupurāna, Pt. IV, we find many of the names in the Mahāvamsa list, like Māndhāta (Mandhātā), Sagara (Sāgara), etc. The Viṣṇupurāṇa states that King Bṛhadvala (Bṛhadbala) of this dynasty was killed in the Kuruksetra war,2 and next proceeds to trace the descent of King Śākya from the Brhadvala.3

The source of the accounts given in the Mahāvamsa and the Sumangalavilāsinī is not, however, the Purāṇas, but such ancient Buddhistical works as the Mahāvastu. This latter work gives a detailed account of the foundation of Kapilavastu and the settlement of the Śākyas there. The story of the sister-marriage is given there, and, as in the Mahāvaṃsa, the Śākya family is traced back to Mahāsammata. The names of the kings that succeeded him agree in the two accounts, for the most part. The following story 4 is told of Sujāta, king of the Sākyas, who reigned in the city of Sāketa. The king had five sons and five daughters, and also another son by a concubine, Jentī. Being pleased with Jentī, he promised her a boon. She demanded that her son, Jenta, should be recognised as heir-apparent; and the king, thought loath to consent, could not break his word. The five princes, his legitimate sons, went into

¹ For the complete genealogy of the \$\bar{a}\text{kyas, according to Sinhalese tradition.} see Mahāvamsa, Chap. II, verses 1-24.

² Viṣṇupurāṇa, Pt. IV, Chap. IV, verse 48.

³ Wilson, Vișnupurāna, Vol. IV, Chap. XXII, pp. 167-72. ⁴ Obviously corresponding to the story of King Okkāka.

exile, followed by many thousands of citizens. They were received by the king of Kāśī-Kośala, and the people of Kāśī-Kośala were delighted with the bearing of the princes. The king, however, became envious and drove the princes out of his kingdom. At the foot of the Himalayas there lived a wise sage called Kapila. His hermitage was vast and charming, with fruits and flowers, adorned with a good many plants and with a dense forest. The princes went to the dense forest and lived there. Traders used to pass through there on their way to Kāśī and Kośala. When asked whence they came, these traders replied that they had come from a certain part of the forest called Sākoṭavana.

The people of Sāketa as well as the traders of Kośala visited the Sākoṭavana. The princes took their brides from among their sisters by the same mother, because they did not wish their race to be contaminated by a mixture of blood. Hearing of this, King Sujāta asked his purohitas and learned Brahmins whether such a

custom was permissible, and they replied in the affirmative.

Meanwhile the princes decided to build a town. They went to the sage Kapila and said that they desired to build a city and name it after him. The princes built a city, making the sage's hermitage a royal residence. As the hermitage was given by Kapila the sage, the city became known by the name of Kapilavastu. Kapilavastu was prosperous, wealthy and peaceful; there alms were easily obtainable, and the people were fond of trade and commerce, sociable, and fond of taking part in festivities.

The names of the five princes were Opura, Nipura, Karaṇḍaka, Ulkāmukha and Hastikaśīrsa. Opura was the eldest, and he was

elected king of Kapilavastu.1

The story given in the Mahāvastu and the Sumangalavilāsinī about the origin of the Śākyas by sister-marriage is referred to in the introduction to the Kunāla Jātaka. Here the story of the origin of the Śākyas exactly tallies with that in the Mahāvastu, but there is some difference in the story of the Koliyas. While the Mahāvastu says that they resided in a cave of a hill, the Jātaka story relates that they received the name Koliya because of having resided in the hollow of a Koli or jujube tree.

In the *Mahāvastu* the Śākyas are called *ādityabandhus* or 'kinsmen of the sun'. This refers to their descent from the Solar

¹ Mahāvastu, Ed. Senart, Vol. I, pp. 348–52. It will be observed that Opura, Nipura, Karaṇḍaka, Ulkāmukha and Hastikaśirṣa are represented in a former passage of the Mahāvastu as sons of King Sujāta. Here, however, the relationship between each prince and the one next mentioned is represented as that of father and son.

dynasty to which the Iksvākus belonged. The Mahāvastu also speaks of King Suddhodana, father of the Buddha, as born in the Iksvāku family.² Another passage in the same work speaks of the Buddha as a Ksatriya of the Adityagotra and of the İksvakukula, i.e. born in the family of the Iksvakus who derived their descent from the sun.3 The Lalitavistara (p. 112) also speaks of the Buddha as born in the royal family of Iksvaku.

The Sākyas were Ksatriyas of the Gotama gotra, as is seen from the fact that the Buddha had the surname Gotama, while the Licchavis and Mallas who also belonged to the same race, bore the gotra name of Vasistha. The gotra of a Ksatriya family was derived from the gotra name of the purohita or family priest; so evidently the Sakyas had adopted the Gotamas as their priests at an early date. The Gotama gotra is described in the Pāli books 4 as occupying a very high position among the gotras, no doubt from its association with the founder of Buddhism.

Kapilavastu, the Śākya capital, is sometimes called Kapilavāstu. The *Lalitavistara* calls it Kapilavastu, and sometimes Kapilapura (p. 243) or Kapilāhvayapura (p. 28, etc.); and these names are also found in the Mahāvastu.⁵ The Divyāvadāna also connects Kapilavastu with the sage Kapila.6 In the Buddhacarita, the city is described as Kapilasya-vastu.⁷

Kapilavastu is said to have been surrounded by seven walls.8 A clue to the identification of the city is furnished by the discovery of the famous Rummindei Pillar which marks the site of the ancient Lumbini garden, the traditional scene of Śākyamuni's birth. Smith is inclined to identify the Śākya capital, which lay not far from the Lumbinigrama, with Piprawa in the north of the Basti district on the Nepalese frontier.

The Chinese pilgrim, Fā-Hien, who visited India early in the fifth century A.D., says that the neighbourhood of Kapilavastu was infested by white elephants and lions, against which the people had to be on their guard.9 The country was thinly populated. He noticed towers at Kapilavastu, set up at various places, viz. where prince Siddhartha left the city by the eastern gate, where his chariot was made to turn back to the palace, where his horoscope was cast

¹ Mahāvastu, II, p. 303.

<sup>Ibid., III, p. 247.
E.g. Suttavibhanga, Pācittiya, II, 2; Vinaya Piṭaka, Oldenberg, Vol. IV, p. 6.</sup> ⁵ Vol. II, p. 11, line 3.

⁶ Divyāvadāna, p. 548, lines 20-2. Kapilavastu, ibid., pp. 90, 390; Kapilavāstu, ibid., p. 67.

⁷ Buddhacarita, Book I, verse 2. 8 Mahāvastu, Vol. II, p. 75. ⁹ Travels of Fā-Hien and Sung-Yun, by S. Beal, pp. 88-98.

by the sage Asita, where the elephant was struck by Nanda and others, where the arrow going thirty li in a south-easterly direction penetrated into the earth and produced a fountain of water which quenched the thirst of travellers in later generations, where Suddhodana was met by his son when the latter had acquired supreme wisdom, where five hundred Śākya converts honoured Upāli, and where the children of the Śākyas were massacred by King Viḍūḍabha.¹

Hsüan Tsang, who visited India in the seventh century A.D., narrates that Kapilavastu, the country of the Sakyas, was about four thousand li in circuit. The royal precincts built of brick were within the city, measuring fourteen or fifteen li round.2 says that, long after the passing away of the Buddha, topes and shrines were built in or near Kapilavastu.3 The villages were few and desolate. The monasteries (sanghārāmas) which were then in ruins, were more than one thousand in number. There still existed a sanghārāma near the royal precincts which contained thirty (3,000 according to one text) followers who read 'the little vehicle of the Sammatiya school'. There were two deva-temples where different sectarians worshipped. There were some dilapidated foundation walls, the remains of the principal palace of King Suddhodana, above which a vihāra (monastery) was built containing a stūpa Near it was a foundation in ruins, representing the sleeping palace of Queen Mahāmāyā. Above it a vihāra was built containing a figure of the queen. Close by stood a vihāra, on the spot where the Bodhisattva was supposed to have entered the womb of his mother. A stupa was built to the north-east of 'the palace of spiritual conception' of the Bodhisattva.4 To the north-west of the capital, a stupa was built where King Vidudabha massacred the Sakyas.⁵ The cultured land was rich and fertile and the climate of the country was bracing.

According to Rhys Davids, there were villages around the rice-fields, and the cattle roamed about in the outlying forest. The jungles, which were occasionally resorted to by robbers, divided one village from another.⁶

Mention is made of several other Sākya towns besides Kapilavastu, viz. Chātumā, Sāmagāma, Ulumpā, Devadaha, Sakkara,

¹ Travels of Fā-Hien, by Beal, pp. 85-7.

² Beal, Records of the Western World, Vol. II, pp. 13-14.

³ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. II, p. 4.

⁴ Beal, Records of the Western World, Vol. II, pp. 14-15.

⁵ *Ibid.*, Vol. II, p. 12.

⁶ Buddhist India, pp. 20-21.

Sīlāvatī, and Khomadussa.¹ The latter was so called on account of its abundant produce of linen cloth.²

It is stated in the Jātaka that the Śākyas were a haughty people, and did not do obeisance to Siddhārtha on the ground that he was younger in age, but were afterwards made to do so on seeing a miracle performed by him. Hsüan Tsang, however, says that the manners of the people were 'soft and obliging', while in Rockhill's Life of the Buddha it is said that they did not kill any living thing, 'not even a black beetle'. The produce of their cattle and rice-fields supplied their only means of livelihood. The villages were grouped around the rice-fields, and the cattle wandered through the outlying forest over which the peasantry had rights of common.

The Tibetan Buddhist Books as translated by Rockhill 7 relate that the Sākya law allowed a man one wife only. This law is rather remarkable inasmuch as polygamy was in vogue in India from the Vedic age downwards,—especially among the Ksatriyas who were rich and powerful. We may, however, account for the existence of this law among the Sakyas on the ground of their special constitution and position. They were a small tribe, and very proud of their birth. They would not give one of their girls in marriage even to such a powerful prince as Pasenadi of Kośala. Among such a people, marriage was generally confined within the tribe itself, and the number of marriageable girls being limited, many adult males would have to go without a wife if polygamy prevailed. Hence the law had grown up among them limiting the number of wives to one. But that the Sakyas had no objection to polygamy as such on religious or other grounds, is clear from the fact narrated by the same Tibetan works that the rigorous provision of the law was relaxed in the case of Suddhodana, the father of the Buddha; in consideration of a great public service rendered by him when, as a young prince, in subduing the hillmen of the Pandava tribe, he was allowed by the Sakyas to have two wives.

The Lalitavistara seems to suggest that Suddhodana had a crowded harem, when it says that Māyādevī was his chief queen, being at the head of a thousand ladies. But this appears to be a mere poetic exaggeration, for the Pāli books speak of only two

¹ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 175.

² The Book of the Kindred Sayings, Pt. I, p. 233.

Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. VI, pp. 479 foll.
 Beal, op. cit., Vol. II, p. 14.

⁵ Rockhill, Life of the Buddha, p. 117.

Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 20.
 S'Suddhodanassa pramadā pradhānā nārīsahasreşu hi sāgraprāptā'. Lalitavistara, p. 28.

wives of the king. Prince Siddhartha had only one wife according to all accounts, and, according to the Lalitavistara, even the hand of this girl was not granted to him, although he was a prince, until he could satisfy the proud Sakya father of his knowledge of the silpas or arts, by an open exhibition of skill in warfare as well as the finer arts. Siddhārtha's wife is named Yasodharā in the Mahāvastu, and her father is called Mahānāma.2

How proud and aristocratic the Sakvas were when asked to give away their daughters in marriage to any one outside their clan will appear from the following story of King Pasenadi of Kośala, who desired to have a Sakya girl as his consort. The king considered that if he married a Sakya girl, the Brethren (i.e. Bhikkhus) would be his friends, as he would then be related to them by marriage. So, rising from his seat, he returned to the palace, and sent a message to Kapilavatthu to this effect: 'Please give me one of your daughters in marriage, for I wish to become connected with your family'. On receipt of this message the Sakyas gathered together and deliberated: 'We live in a place subject to the authority of the king of Kośala; if we refuse to give him one of our daughters, he will be very angry; and if we give her, the custom of our clan will be broken. What are we to do?' Then Mahānāma said to them, 'I have a daughter named Vāsabhakhattiyā. Her mother is a slave woman named Nagamunda; the girl is sixteen years old, of great beauty and auspicious prospects, and noble on her father's side. Let us send her, as a girl nobly born.' The Śākyas agreed, and, sending for the king's messengers, said that they were willing to give a daughter of the clan, and that they might take her with them at once. But the messengers reflected: 'These Sākyas are desperately proud in matters of birth. Suppose they should send a girl who is not one of them, and say that she is so. We will take none but one who eats along with them.' However, by a ruse, Mahānāma avoided eating more than one mouthful with his daughter, and Pasenadi's messengers did not discover the secret.

'So Mahānāma sent away his daughter in great pomp. messengers brought her to \$ravasti, and said that this maiden was the true-born daughter of Mahānāma. The king was pleased, and caused the whole city to be decorated, and placed her upon a pile of treasure, and by a ceremonial sprinkling made her his chief queen.

She was dear to the king, and beloved.'3

The Tibetan books have preserved a story of Pasenadi. Once Pasenadi, king of Kośala, carried away by his horse, reached Kapila-

¹ Lalitavistara, pp. 243ff.; and see Mahāvastu, II, 73. ² Mahāvastu, II, 48. 3 Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. IV, pp. 146 foll.

vastu alone, and roaming about hither and thither, came to the garden of Mahānāman. Here he saw the beautiful Mallikā, who was well versed in the Sastras, and asked her whose garden it was, and was told that it belonged to the Sakva Mahanaman. The king dismounted, and asked for water for washing and drinking. brought water for him, and then she was desired by the king to rub his feet, which she willingly did. Hardly had she touched his feet than he fell asleep. Mallika thought that the king might have enemies, and did not open the gate when instructed to do so by a multitude of people. The king awoke and asked her what the matter was, and she told him what she had done. Her shrewdness and wisdom were admired by the king. Coming to know that she was a slave girl of Mahānāman, he went to her master and expressed his desire to marry her. The master agreed, and the king took her with him in great pomp to Śrāvastī. The king's mother was highly displeased that her son had married a slave girl, but when Mallika went to pay respects to her and touched her feet, she immediately fell asleep. When she awoke, she thought that such a touch could not but be that of a maiden of noble birth, worthy of the family of Shortly afterwards a son was born to Mallika, and was called Virudhaka or the high-born. It is evident that this story is a Tibetan version of the story of Pasenadi and Vāsabhakhattiyā.

We learn, then, that the Śākyas contracted marriages within their own tribe, and even their ruling house did not enter into matrimonial relations with any of the numerous princely houses in N. India,—unlike the royal houses of Kośala, Magadha and Videha, for example. When the marriage of Prince Siddhārtha was decided upon at the council of five hundred Śākya elders, these proceeded to select a bride for him from among themselves. This clannish custom among the Śākyas perhaps gave rise to the idea that they married their sisters.²

In Hsüan Tsang's times, when a Śākya child was born, it was carried to the temple of Īśvaradeva to be presented to the god. The temple contained a stone image of the god in the posture of rising and bowing.³

The women appear to have enjoyed a greater amount of independence and freedom of thought among the Śākyas than among the people of the plains, perhaps owing to the scarcity of women. Thus, according to all Buddhist accounts, the Śākya ladies were the

¹ Rockhill, *Life of the Buddha*, pp. 75–7. According to Pāli canonical literature, Virudhaka was the son of Pasenadi by another wife named Vāsabhakhattiyā, who was given in marriage to Pasenadi by the Śākyas.

² Vide ante.

³ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. II, p. 13.

first to cut themselves off from the world, and to institute the order of nuns, the foster-mother of the Buddha, Mahāpajāpatī Gotamī, taking the lead. Some of the Sakva ladies who left the world and adopted the life of the female ascetic have left behind them poems and songs that are preserved in the Psalms of the Sisters (Therigāthā). Among these ladies were Tissā, Abhirūpanandā and Mittā. Tissā was born at Kapilavastu among the Sākyas. renounced the world with Mahapajapati Gotami, and attained Arahatship.² Abhirūpanandā was the daughter of Khemaka the She was called Nanda the Fair for her great beauty and amiability. Her beloved kinsman, Carabhūta, died on the day on which she was to choose him from amongst her suitors. She had to leave the world against her will, and though she entered the Order, she could not forget that she was beautiful. Fearing that the Buddha would rebuke her, she used to avoid his presence. At last, however, she was compelled to come to him for instruction, and by his supernatural power the Buddha conjured up a beautiful woman who became transformed into an old and fading figure. This had the desired effect, and Nanda became an Arahat.3 Mitta, born in the royal family of the Śākyas at Kapilavastu, left the world with Mahāpajāpatī Gotamī, and like the other two, soon attained Arahantship.4

There was a technical college of the Sakvas in the mango-grove. 'It was a long terraced mansion made for the learning of crafts.' The learning of one or other of the arts was incumbent upon every Śākya youth, for, as we have seen, no father would give his daughter in marriage to an idler or ignoramus. There was also a school for archery at Kapilavastu, where the Śākyas were trained.6 The Sākvas being a Ksatriya tribe devoted to warlike pursuits, and surrounded on all sides by warlike tribes, the school of archery was necessarily a flourishing institution. The Lalitavistara describes in details the various sciences and arts, beginning with the arts of writing, that the young Siddhartha had to learn. But the whole description is that of an ideal school which the poet imagined, no doubt basing the account on the condition of education in India at the time in which he wrote. There is nothing in the description that might be called particularly \$\bar{a}kya.

The minds of the Sakya royal princes and nobles were so enlightened by the Buddha that they were able to realise 'the perfect

² Psalms of the Sisters, pp. 12-13.

¹ Vinaya Texts, S.B.E., Vol. XX, Pt. III, pp. 320-6, I, 2, 3, 4, 1st paragraph, and paragraphs 5 and 6.

³ Ibid., pp. 22-3, and see also ibid., pp. 55-7 (Sundari Nandā).

⁵ Sumangalavilāsinī, Vol. III, p. 905. 4 Ibid., p. 29. ⁶ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. II, p. 13.

fruit of righteousness'.¹ Nandupananda and Kuṇḍadana, two principal nobles, and other persons of the Śākya clan became recluses.² Upāli, son of Atalī, followed their example. Then the other princes and the sons of the chief minister renounced the world.³ At the request of the Buddha, many Śākyas became recluses, and were well provided for.⁴ The life of the Śākya recluse was so attractive that Sumangala (reborn in a poor family) became a recluse. The recluses were respected for their simplicity of life.⁵ There was a residence at Kapilavastu provided by the community for recluses of all schools.⁵

The administrative and judicial business of the Sakya clan was carried out in their santhāgāra or Council-Hall at Kapilavastu.7 young Brahmin named Ambattha who went to Kapilavastu on business had the opportunity of visiting the santhagara of the Sakyas, where he saw the young and the old seated on grand seats.8 The 'samsthāgāra' is spoken of in the Mahāvastu and the Lalitavistara. and we are told there that 500 Sakyas usually took their seats in the Hall. The Mahāvastu describes how thirty-two princes, the sons of a Śākya girl and Rājā Kola of Benares, came to settle in Kapilavastu, and presented themselves before the Sākya council (Sākyabarisad), where 500 Sakya leaders sat together to transact some important business. A new Council-Hall of the Śākvas was raised at Kapilavastu when the Buddha was dwelling at the Nigrodhārāma in the Mahavana which was close to it. At their request, the Buddha inaugurated the hall, and a series of ethical discourses lasting the whole of the night were delivered by him, Ananda and Moggallana.

The Lalitavistara also gives 500 as the number of the members of the Śākya Council. The Parisad of the Licchavis appears to have been larger, but the system of administration seems to have been very much the same, though there was this difference, that while at Vaiśalī everyone called himself a $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$, at Kapilavastu there was one distinct headman called the $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ who was elected by the people. According to Rhys Davids, he had to preside over the sessions and when no sessions were held, he had to conduct the business of the State. But we hear that once Bhaddiya, a young cousin of the Buddha, took the title of $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$; and in one passage, Śuddhodana is styled a $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$, although he is elsewhere spoken of as a simple citizen. 11

¹ S.B.E., Vol. XIX, p. 226.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 226-7.

⁴ Ibid., pp. 226-7; Psalms of the Brethren, p. 81.

⁵ Psalms of the Brethren, p. 47.

⁶ Buddhist India, p. 20.

⁸ Dīgha, I, p. 91. 'Uccesu āsanesu nisinnā'.

¹⁰ Lalitavistara, Ed. Lefmann, pp. 136-7.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 227.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 19.

⁹ Buddhist Índia, p. 20.

¹¹ Buddhist India, p. 19.

In Prof. Rhys Davids' opinion, no doubt all the more important places had a 'Mote-Hall' or 'pavilion covered with a roof but with no walls in which to conduct their business'. The local affairs of the villages were conducted in open assembly consisting of the householders, 'held in the groves which, then as now, formed so distinctive a feature of each village in the long and level alluvial plain'.¹ In the time of the Chinese travellers, Fā-Hien, Sung-Yun and Hsüan Tsang, there was no central government at Kapilavastu. There existed a congregation of priests and about ten families of laymen.² Each town appointed its own ruler and there was no supreme ruler.³

D. R. Bhandarkar says that *kula* or clan sovereignty was prominent among the Sākyas. *Kula*, which was more extensive than the family, was the lowest political unit amongst the political *saṅghas*. To quote his words, *kula* 'denotes not simply the domination of a chief over his clan, but also and principally his supremacy

over the territory occupied by that clan '.4

It appears from the *Mahāvastu*⁵ that Koliya and Licchavi young men also showed their prowess at the tournament held to test the knowledge of Prince Siddhārtha before his marriage. It seems that the Koliyas and Licchavis were on terms of close relationship with the Śākyas. The Koliyas were of kindred origin, and the Licchavis, from their living in the country to the south-east of the Śākya territory, most probably often became intimate with the Śākyas.

The Kośala country bordered on the region occupied by the Śākyas, and there were mutual jealousies between the two peoples that often developed into war. Thus we are told that the Śākyas became the vassals of King Pasenadi of Kośala who received homage from them. At first Pasenadi was scornful of and disrespectful towards the Buddha, but he later repented of his attitude, developed a great admiration for the Buddha, and paid his respects to him. We have already seen how he desired to establish a connection with the Buddha's family by marriage.

When Vidūdabha, the son of Pasenadi and Vāsabhakhattiyā, came of age, he found out that the Śākyas had deceived his father, and he resolved to take revenge upon them. In order to do this, he decided to get possession of the throne for himself, and with the aid of his commander-in-chief, Dīrgha Cārāyana or Dīgha Kārāyana,

¹ Buddhist India, p. 20.

<sup>Beal, Travels of Fā-Hien and Sung-Yun, pp. 85-7.
Beal, Records of the Western World, Vol. II, p. 14.</sup>

⁴ Carmichael Lectures, 1918, pp. 162-4.

⁵ Vol. II, p. 76.

⁶ Majjhima Nikāya (P.T.S.), Vol. II, Pt. I, pp. 118-24.

he deposed his father who fled from Śrāvastī, the Kośala capital, and set out for Rajagrha, the capital of Magadha. But 'it was late when he came to the city, and the gates were shut and lying down in a shed, exhausted by exposure to wind and sun, he died there'.1 After ascending the throne, Vidudabha invaded the Śākya country, took their (capital) city and slew many of them without any distinction of age or sex. He then took 500 Sākya girls for his harem, to celebrate his victory. Full of rage and hatred, the girls declared that they would never submit to the king. On hearing this, the king was enraged, and gave orders that they should be killed. According to the king's orders, the officers cut off their hands and feet and threw them into a ditch. The girls invoked the Buddha who saw their plight through his divine insight, and ordered a bhikkhu to go to them and preach his doctrine. Having heard the instruction, they attained 'purity of the eyes of law', died, and were all reborn in heaven.2 Vidudabha himself is said to have perished by a sudden flood, along with numerous Kośalan followers.

There is a different version of this account in the Vidūdakāvadānam of the Avadānakalpalatā.3 According to this, Vidūdaka (= Vidūdabha) slaughtered seventy-seven thousand Śākyas and stole one thousand boys and girls. One day when he was eulogising his own prowess in his court, the stolen Sakya girls said, 'Wherefore this pride when death is inevitable to a man bound by action?' The king heard this, became angry, and ordered his men to cut off the hands of the girls.

Rhys Davids says that the real motives which led Vidūdaka to attack and conquer the Śākyas were most probably similar to the political motives which led Ajātaśatru to attack and conquer the Licchavis of Vaiśālī. Vidūdaka perhaps used the arrogance

of the Sakyas as a pretext.4

It is stated in the Mahāvamsa Tīkā that during the lifetime of the Buddha some Śākyas, being oppressed by Vidūdabha, fled to the Himalayas, where they built a beautiful city, which was known as Moriyanagara (Mauryanagara), because the spot always resounded with the cries of peacocks.⁵ The Buddhists hold that Aśoka and the Buddha were of the same family, as the former was descended from Candragupta, who was a son of the queen of one of the kings of Moriyanagara.6

¹ Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. IV, p. 152.

² Beal, Buddhist Records of the Western World, Vol. II, pp. 11-12.

^{3 11}th Pallava (Bibl. Indica series).

⁴ Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, pp. 11-12; and see also Licchavi chapter.

⁵ Mahāvamsa Tīkā (Ceylonese edition), pp. 119-21.

⁶ Beal, Records of the Western World, Vol. I, Intro., p. xvii.

CHAPTER L

THE MALLAS

The Mallas were a powerful people of E. India at the time of Gautama Buddha, and are often mentioned in Buddhist and Taina works.

The country of the Mallas is spoken of in many passages of a Buddhist work as one of the sixteen 'great countries' (Mahājanapadas). It is also mentioned in the Sabhābarvan of the Mahābhārata. where we are told that the second Pandava, Bhimasena, during his expedition to E. India, conquered the chief of the Mallas, besides the country of Gopālakaksa and the northern Kośala territories.² The Bhīsmaparvan mentions the Mallas along with such E. Indian

peoples as the Angas, the Vangas and the Kalingas.⁸

At the time of which we are speaking, the Mallas appear to have been divided into two confederacies, one with headquarters at Pāvā, and the other with headquarters at Kuśīnārā', as we see from the Mahābarinibbāna Suttanta. There is reason to believe that in the Buddha's time Kuśīnārā was not a city of the first rank. like Rājagrha, Vaiśālī, or Śrāvastī. When the Lord expressed to Ānanda his desire to die at Kuśīnārā, Ānanda said to him, 'Let not the Exalted One die in this little wattle-and-daub town, in this town in the midst of the jungle, in this branch township....' fact that the Buddha hastened to Kuśīnārā from Pāyā during his last illness indicates that the distance between the two towns was not great; but the description in the Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta does not enable us to make any accurate estimate. Kuśinārā has been identified by Cunningham with the village of Kāsiā in the east of the Gorakhpur district,⁵ and this view has recently been strengthened by the fact that in the stupa behind the Nirvana temple, near this village, a copperplate has been discovered, bearing the inscription '(parini)rvāṇa-caitya-tāmra-patta', or 'the copperplate of the parinirvana-caitya'. This identification appears to be correct, although V. A. Smith would prefer to place Kuśīnārā in Nepal, beyond the first range of hills.⁶ Rhys Davids expresses the opinion

4 Dīgha Nikāya, Vol. II, p. 165. ⁵ Ancient Geography of India, pp. 430-3.

¹ Anguttara Nikāya, Vol. IV, p. 252.

² Vangavāsī Ed., Vol. I, p. 241; Sabhāparvan, Chap. XXX, śl. 3.

³ Ibid., Bhīsmaparvan, Chap. IX, śl. 46.

⁶ Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 167, f.n. 5; J.R.A.S., 1913, p. 152.

that, if we may trust the Chinese pilgrims, the territory of the Mallas of Kuśīnārā and Pāvā was on the mountain slopes to the east of the Śākya land and to the north of the Vajjian confederation. But some would place their territory south of the Śākyas and east of the Vajjians.¹ It is a considerable distance from Kāsiā in the Gorakhpur district to Pāwāpuri of the Jainas in the Patna district, and one so ill as the Buddha was not likely to go such a distance on foot. Therefore Pāvā of the Buddhist books appears to have been distinct from Pāwāpuri, and situated not very far from Kāsiā.

The Cullavagga of the *Vinaya Piṭaka* mentions another town of the Mallas named Anupiyā,² where the Buddha resided for some time. This Anupiyā may be the same as the mango-grove called Anupiya, where Gautama spent the first seven days after his re-

nunciation, on his way to Rajagrha.8

A fourth town of the Mallas, called Uruvelakappa, where the Buddha stayed for some time, is mentioned in the Aṅguttara Nikāya.⁴ In its neighbourhood a wide forest called Mahāvana appears to have existed, where the Buddha went alone for midday rest after

his meal, and met the gahapati Tapusa.

From the *Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta* account of the Buddha's death and cremation,⁵ it is evident that the Mallas belonged to the Kṣatriya caste; and they are repeatedly addressed by the Buddha as well as by Ānanda and others as Vāseṭṭhas or Vāsiṣṭhas,⁶—showing that, like the Licchavis, they belonged to the Vasiṣṭha gotra. Like the Licchavis again, the Mallas are described by Manu (X, 22) as 'born of a Kṣatriya mother and of a Kṣatriya father who was a *vrātya*,' i.e. who had not gone through the ceremony of Vedic initiation at the proper age.

According to Kauṭilya, the Mallas were a saṅgha or corporation of which the members called themselves rājās, just as the Licchavis did. Buddhaghosa also calls them rājās. A passage in the Majjhima Nikāya mentions the Licchavis and Mallas as examples of saṅghas and gaṇas. The Mallas of Pāvā and Kuśīnārā, then, had their respective Santhāgāras or Council-Halls, where all matters, both political and religious, were discussed. The Saṅgīti Suttanta of the Dīgha Nikāya tells us that when the Buddha came to the Mallas, a new Council-Hall named Ubbhataka had just been built at Pāvā.

⁸ Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. I, pp. 65-6.

¹ Buddhist India, p. 26.

² Cullavagga, VII, I, I; Vinaya Texts, S.B.E., Pt. III, p. 224.

⁴ Samyutta Nikāya, Pt. V, p. 228; Anguttara Nikāya, Vol. IV, p. 438.

Dīgha Nikāya, II, p. 165.
 Sumangalavilāsinī, III, p. 971; and see Licchavi chapter.

⁸ Dīgha, Pt. III, p. 207.

The Mallas invited the Buddha to this hall, saying, 'Let the Lord, the Exalted One, be the first to make use of it. That it has first been used by the Exalted One will be for the lasting good and happiness of the Pāvā Mallas'. At their request, the Buddha gave a discourse on his doctrine to the Mallas of Pāvā, until the late hours of the night. The Mallas were in assembly and had been doing business in their Council-Hall when Ānanda went to them with the message of the impending death of the Master; and again they gathered in assembly, evidently in the same Santhāgāra, to discuss the procedure to be followed in the disposal of the body, and afterwards to discuss the claims put forward by the various Kṣatriya kings and peoples.

In the *Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta*, there is mention of a set of officers called *Purisas* among the Mallas of Kuśīnārā, about whose functions we are quite in the dark. Rhys Davids ¹ takes them to be a class of subordinate servants. It is not unlikely that they are the same as the *Pulisas* mentioned in the edicts of Aśoka.

It seems that the Mallas were a martial race and were devoted to such manly sports as wrestling.² It is probable that the word 'Malla' denoting a professional wrestler was derived from the tribal name of this people. But the Mallas cultivated learning as well as physical culture. We read in one of the Buddhist texts, for example, that Bandhula, a son of a king of Kuśinārā, went to Taxila for his education. There he studied with a great teacher, along with Pasenadi of Kośala, and Mahāli, a Licchavi prince of Vaiśālī. After completing his education he came back to this realm.³ We often find the Mallas discussing philosophical problems, as may be seen, e.g. from Samyutta Nikāya, IV, pp. 327ff.; V, pp. 228-9, 349ff.

Before the advent of Jainism and Buddhism, the Mallas seem to have been caitya-worshippers like their neighbours, the Licchavis. One of their shrines called Makuta Bandhana, to the east of Kuśīnārā, is mentioned in connection with the death of the Buddha: his dead body was carried thither for cremation. There is no indication of

the kind of worship that was performed at this place.

Jainism found many followers among the Mallas. The accounts in Buddhist Literature of the schism that appeared in the Jaina Church after the death of Mahāvīra amply prove this. At Pāvā, the followers of Nigaṇṭha Nātaputta were divided after the death of their great Tīrthaṅkara. There were both ascetics and lay devotees among these Jainas, for we read that on account of the disputations among the ascetics, 'even the lay disciples of the white robe, who

¹ Buddhist India, p. 21. ² Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. II, p. 96.

⁸ Fausböll, Dhammapadam (old edition), p. 211.

followed Nātaputta, showed themselves shocked, repelled and indignant at the Nigaṇṭhas.' These lay Jainas appear from this passage to have been draped in white robes, just as the *Svetāmbaras* are at the present day. The Buddha seems to have taken advantage of the schism that overtook the Jaina church on the death of its founder, for the propagation of the rival faith. In the *Pāsādika Suttanta*, we find that Cunda, the novice of Pāvā, brought the news of the death of Mahāvīra to Ānanda at Sāmagāma in the Malla country. Ānanda forthwith reported it to the Buddha who delivered a long discourse.²

The Mallas were much attached to the founder of Jainism. We are informed by the *Kalpa Sūtra* that to mark the passing away of the great Jina, nine Mallakis or Malla chiefs were among those that instituted an illumination on the day of the New-moon, saying, 'Since the light of intelligence is gone, let us make an illumination of material matter.' ³

Buddhism also attracted many devotees among the Mallas some of whom, like the venerable Dabba, attained a high and respected position among the brethren. On account of his virtues, he was appointed, after due election by the Buddhist Saṅgha, a regulator of lodging places and apportioner of rations. He was so successful in the discharge of these duties, which required a great deal of patience and tact, that he was considered by the Saṅgha to be possessed of miraculous powers. But there were some who were envious of him, and preferred charges against him to bring about his expulsion from the Saṅgha. The venerable Dabba, however, was exculpated from these charges.

Ânother Malla, Khaṇḍasumana, born in the family of a Malla rājā of Pāvā, entered the Buddhist Order and acquired six-fold Abhiññā.⁵

Once, Buddha was in the country of the Mallas at Uruvelakappa. One day he asked Ānanda to remain there, while he left for Mahāvana to spend the day. While Ānanda was at Uruvelakappa, a householder named Tapussa, probably a Malla, came to him, and Ānanda took him to the Buddha whose teachings cured Tapussa of his desire for sensual pleasures. Another Malla, Roja, asked Ānanda whether the Buddha would accept potherbs and meal from him, and the Buddha asked him to hand them over to the bhikkhus. A certain Sīha was born in the country of the Mallas, in the family of a rājā.

¹ Dīgha, III, p. 210.

⁸ Jaina Sūtras, Pt. I, S.B.E., XXII, p. 266.

⁴ Vinaya Texts, Pt. III, pp. 4ff.

⁶ Anguttara Nikāya, Vol. IV, pp. 438-48.

⁷ Vinaya Texts, Pt. II, S.B.E., Vol. XVII, p. 139.

² Ibid., III. p. 118.

⁵ Psalms of the Brethren, p. 90.

As soon as he saw the Buddha, he was attracted to him. The Buddha taught him the Dhamma, and he entered the Buddhist order and eventually developed insight and acquired Arhatship.¹

It was at the Mallian city of Pāvā that the Buddha ate his last meal at the house of Cunda, the smith, and fell ill. Though in pain, the Buddha went to the rival Mallian city of Kuśīnārā. When he felt that his last moment was fast approaching, he sent Ānanda with a message to the Mallas of Kuśīnārā who had then assembled in their Santhāgāra (Council-Hall) for some public affair. On receipt of the news, they flocked to the Sāla grove where the Buddha was, with their young men, girls and wives, 'being grieved and sad and afflicted at heart'. The venerable Ānanda caused them 'to stand in groups, each family in a group,' and presented them to the Buddha.² After his last exhortations to the assembled brethren to work out their salvation with diligence, the Buddha entered into parinirvāṇa.

The Mallas then met together in their Council-Hall to devise some means of honouring the earthly remains of the Lord in a suitable manner, and carried them with music to the shrine of the Mallas, called the Makūṭa-bandhana, to the east of their city. They treated the remains of the Tathāgata as they would treat the remains of a king of kings (Cakravarttirājā). When the cremation was over, they extinguished the funeral pyre with water scented with all sorts of perfumes, and collected the bones, which they placed in their Council-Hall, surrounding them 'with a lattice work of spears and with a rampart of bows.' 4

As they had a separate principality, the Mallas of Pāvā were among the various clans that pressed their claims for a share of the remains. They sent a messenger to the Mallas of Kuśīnārā, saying: 'The Exalted One was a Kṣatriya and so are we. We are worthy to receive a portion of the relics of the Exalted One. Over the remains of the Exalted One will we put up a sacred cairn, and in his honour will we celebrate a feast.' Both the Mallas of Pāvā and of Kuśīnārā erected stūpas over their respective shares, and celebrated feasts.

The Mallas appear to have usually been on friendly terms with their neighbours, the Licchavis, with whom they had many ties of kinship, though, as was inevitable, there were occasional rivalries between the two States, as, for instance, the story of Bandhula, a Mallian general, shows. Bandhula drove to Vaiśālī, the Licchavi capital, where he arrogantly misused the water of a tank where the members of the king's families were in the habit of obtaining water

¹ Psalms of the Brethren, p. 80.

⁸ Ibid., p. 161.

⁵ Fausböll, Dhammapadam (old ed.), pp. 218-20.

² Dīgha, II, pp. 148 foll.

⁴ Ibid., p. 164.

for ceremonial purposes. Five hundred Licchavi Rājās set forth to capture Bandhula, but the latter 'sped a shaft and it cleft the heads of all the chariots and passed right through the five hundred kings,'—who forthwith died in gruesome circumstances.

The Mallas appear to have lost their independence to that ambitious monarch of Magadha, Ajātaśatru, and their dominions

were annexed to the Magadhan empire.1

¹ D. R. Bhandarkar, Carmichael Lectures, 1918, p. 79.

CHAPTER LI

THE VANGAS

It is not difficult for the philologist to recognise the present Bengal in the tribal name 'Vanga'. But Vanga in ancient days denoted only a portion of present-day Bengal; it is distinguished in ancient literature and epigraphic records not only from Rādha which included Suhma 1 or was conterminous with it 2 and Gauda which at one time included Karnasuvarna ³ and a portion of Rādha, ⁴ all making up what is now roughly known as Western Bengal, but also from Pundra or Pundravardhana which included Varendra or Varendri, making up what is roughly identical with present Northern Bengal. Vanga thus stood for what is now known as Eastern Bengal comprising the modern Dacca and Chittagong divisions. Among the important divisions of Vanga in ancient days were included Samatata (mod. Faridpur), according to Watters, and for some time even Tamralipta or Tamalitti (mod. Tamluk).6 Hemacandra in his Abhidhānacintāmani (IV, 23), however, identifies the country of the Vanga with that of a tribe called the Harikelas.7 In the eleventh century Cola Inscription (Tirumalai Rock Ins. of Rājendra Cola) as well as in the Goharwa Plate of Karnadeva, king of Cedi (c. 1040-1070 A.D.), the Vanga country is referred to as Bangala-desam, which, in the thirteenth century, came to be called Bangāla (Wright's Marco Polo) and in Mohamedan times Bānglā. The Tirumalai Inscription distinguishes Vanga from South Rādha (Takkana Lādham) and North Rādha (Uttila Lādham). Thus Vanga which at one time denoted Eastern Bengal has now given its name to the entire province of modern Bengal, the English rendering of the name being derived from Bangala or Bangla.8

¹ I.H.Q., Vol. VIII, No. 3, pp. 525-9.

² S.B.E., Vol. XXII, pp. 84-5, Nilakantha's commentary on the Sabhāparvan of the Mahābhārata. 'Suhmāḥ Rādhāḥ' = The Suhmas are the Rādhas.

⁸ M. Chakravarti, J.A.S.B., 1908, p. 274. 4 Prabodhacandrodaya, Canto II. ⁵ Tarpandighi Grant of Laksmanasena, Inscriptions of Bengal, III, pp. 99ff. But in some of the Sena records Vanga is included in Pundravardhanabhukti.

⁶ I.H.Q., Vol. VIII, No. 3, p. 533.
7 According to I-tsing (I-tsing, Takakusu, p. xlvi), Wuhing, another Chinese pilgrim, visited Harikela, which was the eastern limit of E. India. Harikela is also mentioned in an illustrated manuscript of Astasahasraprajñāpāramitā in the Camb. Univ. Library (MSS. Add. 1643).

⁸ In a Nalanda Inscription recently edited by N. G. Majumdar (Ep. Ind., Vol. XXI, Pt. III, pp. 97ff.) the name Vangala desa appears.

In the time of Baudhāyana 1 (fourth century B.C.?), the Vangas were distinguished from the Pundras, while in the Epics and Purānas, Vanga is distinguished from Pundra and Suhma, as well as from Anga and Kalinga. According to the Puranas and the Mahabharata.2 King Bali's queen, Sudesnā, and the sage Dīrghatamas had five sons (with Bali's consent): Anga, Vanga, Kalinga, Pundra, and Suhma. These five were called the Baleya Ksatras or Baleya Brahmanas, and are said to have been the founders of the five countries bearing their respective names. In the Matsyapurāna, Vanga and Suhma are included in a list of the eastern countries (Chap. 114, 43-45).8 According to the Mahābhārata (XII, Chap. 5, 6607), King Jarāsandha is said to have extended his supremacy over the Angas, Vangas, Kalingas, and Pundras. Karna is also once said to have conquered the Suhmas, Angas and Vangas (Karnaparvan, Chap. 8, 19), while Vāsudeva is said to have once routed in battle the Angas, Vangas, Kalingas and Paundras along with other peoples. In the Sabhā-parvan, the Pāṇdavas are described as having subjugated the Puṇdras and the Vangas, and led their victorious army to Suhma (Sabhābarvan, Chap. XXX, 23-5).

It, therefore, seems that in the period represented by the Epics and the Purāṇas, Vaṅga, Puṇḍra (or Pauṇḍra) and Suhma were the three important divisions of Bengal, but it is difficult to define with any degree of exactitude the geographical positions of these divisions. We may, however, assume that Puṇḍra and Suhma were two adjacent tracts, identical roughly with the modern Rajshahi and Burdwan divisions respectively. In the Sabhāparvan of the Mahābhārata Aṅga and Vaṅga are mentioned as forming one Viṣaya or kingdom. This is supported by a reference in the Rāmāyaṇa (Bk. II, Chap. X) where the Vaṅgas are mentioned along with the Aṅgas; they are, moreover, nearly always associated in ancient literature

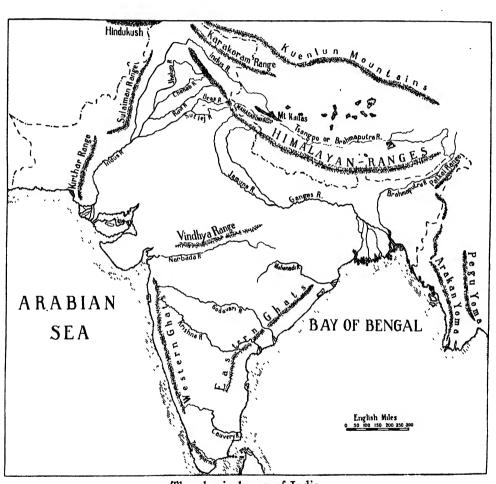
with the Angas and Kalingas.

The Vangas as a tribe are not mentioned in earlier Vedic literature, unless we recognise them in the curious word 'Vanga-Vāgadhāḥ' which occurs in the Aitareya Āranyaka (II, I, I). 'Vanga-Vāgadhaḥ' has often been amended into 'Vanga-Māgadhāḥ',

¹ Dharmasūtra, I, I, 14; cf. Oldenberg, Buddha, 394, n.

² Vāyu P., Chap. 99, 26-34, 47-97; Brahmānda P., III, Chap. 74, 25-34, 47-100; Matsya P., Chap. 48, 23-9, 43-89; Brahma P., IV, Chap. 18, 1; Bhāg. P., IX, Chap. 23, 5; Mbh. I, Chap. 104, 4193-221, with variations; XII, Chap. 343, 13177-84, cf. Pargiter, Anc. Ind. Hist. Tradition, pp. 109 and 158.

³ Cf. also *Mbh.* (*Bhīṣmaparvan*, Chap. 9, 46) where the Angas, Vangas and Kalingas are mentioned as East Indian peoples (Law, 'Some Kṣatriya Tribes of Ancient India', p. 147). Cf. also Rāmāyaṇa (Kiṣkindhyā Kāṇḍa, Canto xlii) where the Pundras are mentioned as an Eastern people.



The physical map of India.

i.e. the Vangas and the Magadhas, who were neighbouring peoples. The amendment is doubtful; but if it be correct, the Vangas along with the Magadhas must have been branded by the Arvans as an impure people, probably a pre-Aryan tribe; for the two tribes are described as 'paksī-viśesāh', or like certain species of birds. Baudhāyana too brands Vanga as an impure country, along with Pundra, Kalinga and Sauvīra. An Aryan who had been to any of these countries was required to perform a certain sacrificial rite to become free from the impurities attaching to residence there. Even in the time of Patañjali (second century B.C.) the Vangas and their country were excluded from Aryavarta. The country was, however, Aryanised before Manu wrote his Dharmaśāstra (between 200 B.C. and 200 A.D., acc. to Bühler), for the Manusamhitā extends the eastern boundary of Ārvavarta to the sea. In the early Buddhist literature where detailed lists appear of many countries and peoples, the Vangas and their country are conspicuous by their absence. are, however, mentioned in the Jain Prajñāpāṇā,2 which ranks Anga and Vanga in the first group of Aryan peoples, and in the Milinda-Pañho, where Vanga is described as a trading-place to be reached by sea. The mother of Sīhabāhu and Sīhasīvalī, of Mahāvamsa and Dipavamsa fame, was a Vanga princess, the daughter of a king of Vanga who had married the daughter of the king of Kalinga.4

The first epigraphic mention of the Vangas is probably made in the Maharauli Iron Pillar Inscription (C.I.I., Vol. III, pp. 141ff.), where the mighty King Candra is said to have 'in battle in the Vanga countries turned back with his breast the enemies who uniting together came against him.' H. P. Sāstrī identified this King Candra with King Candravarman of the Allahabad Pillar Inscription, and with the king of the same name of Pokhrana, which he located in Marwar

¹ For early references to Vanga see Lévi, Pre-Aryan et Pre-Dravidian dans

² It is interesting to see what accounts we may get of the ancient Vanga people out of some records of non-Aryan activities of a time when the Aryans disdained to notice the tribes outside the pale of Āryāvarta. For a detailed study vide B. C. Majumdar, *History of the Bengali Language*, pp. 38-41. Glimpses of the ancient relation of Bengal with the Tamils are reflected in at least one place-name of ancient Bengal Tāmralipti, which was once called Dāmalipti or Dāmilitti, i.e. the city of the Dāmala people. The Dāmalas are the same as the Tāmala people or the Tāmila; and Bengal must once have been a home of these people.

H. P. Sāstrī, Mānasī, Vaisākh, 1321 B.S., pp. 356-8.

⁸ P. 359 (Trenckner).

⁴ Mahāvaṃsa, VI, iff.; Dīpavaṃsa, IX, 2. We may note here that Lāļa, which is mentioned in this story has been proved by H. C. Ray, in an interesting note, to be identical with Rāḍha (H. C. Ray, 'Lāļa—A Note', J.A.S.B. (new series), Vol. XVIII, 1922, No. 7).

in Rajputana. H. C. Ray Chaudhuri and S. K. Chatterjee, however, identify Pokhrana or Puskarana with a village of the same name on the Dāmodara river in the Bankura district of Bengal, some 25 miles east of the Susunia Hill on which the record of Candravarman is inscribed. The Vangas are mentioned in Kālidāsa's Raghuvamśa, where Raghu is said to have conquered the Vangas after he had finished his task with the Suhmas, and then to have planted his victorious banner in the midstream of the Ganges (Canto IV, 35-6). This passage shows that in the age of Kālidāsa (c. 400 A.D.) the Vangas were distinguished, as in earlier days, from the Suhmas. It is likely that the realm of the Vangas abutted on the Ganges, which probably formed the dividing line between the two countries.

The Vanga country is also referred to in the Mahākuta Pillar Inscription (Ep. Ind., Vol. V), which tells us that in the sixth century A.D., Kīrtivarman of the Cālukya dynasty gained victories over the kings of Vanga, Anga and Magadha, which were three neighbouring countries. Another reference to the realm of the Vanga people is made in the 'Gaudavaho', a Marathi Prakrit poem that records the exploits of King Yasovarman of Kanauj (first half of the eighth century A.D). The identity of Yasovarman has been sufficiently established by his mention in Chinese records (as I-chafon-mo), and also in the Rājataranginī of Kalhana; but the exploits recorded in the 'Gaudavaho', with the exception of the main topics, i.e. the defeat and death of the Gauda king, are of doubtful historical value. We are told that Yasovarman, bent on conquest, first came to the river Son, whence he proceeded to the Vindhyas with his army. Fearing his approach, the Gauda king, who was also the king of Magadha, fled, and Yasovarman entered his territory and fixed his camp there. The Gauda king returned, and a battle was fought in which he was killed. Yaśovarman next proceeded to the Vanga kingdom, whose king also submitted to him.2 Not long after Yaśovarman's victories, Odivisa, Vanga and five other countries of the east (which seem to have included Gauda, Suhma, Pundra, etc.) seem, according to the celebrated Tibetan historian Tārānāth (Ind. Ant., Vol. IV, pp. 365-6), to have been plunged into a chaos which has been described as 'Mātsya-nyāya',—i.e. the system where the strong destroy the weak, like the big fish eating up the small frog. This was ended when Gopāla, the first of the Pāla dynasty, was elected king from amongst the people sometime in the middle of the eighth century A.D.

¹ Ray Chaudhuri, P.H.A.I., p. 448 (4th Ed.); S. K. Chatterjee, The Origin and Development of the Bengali Language, II, p. 1061. See also I.H.Q., I, Pt. II, p. 255.
2 N. Ray, The Maukharis of Kanoj, Cal. Rev., 1928, Feb., pp. 216-7.

From the above account we see that the Vanga country seems to have been distinguished from that of the Gaudas in the eighth century A.D.: and this distinction seems to have been maintained as late as the twelfth century A.D. In the Pithapuram plates of Prithvisena (A.D. 1186) King Malla is said to have subdued among others the kings of the Vangas, Magadhas and Gaudas. In the Tirumalai Rock Inscription 1 of King Rājendra Cola (1025 A.D.) Vangāladeśam, i.e. the realm of the Vangālas or Vangas (at that time ruled over by Govinda Candra) is distinguished from Uttira-Lādam or Uttara-Rādha (= the Brahma country of the Kāvvamīmāmsā),2 ruled over by Mahipāla, and from Takkana-Lādam or Daksina Rādha (= Suhma of the Epics, the Purānas and the $K\bar{a}vva$ mīmāmsā), ruled over by Ranaśūra. The Kāvvamīmāmsā,2 a work of the tenth century A.D., mentions Anga, Vanga, Suhma, Brahma, Pundra, etc., as janapadas of the east. The Vanga country is also referred to not only in the copperplate grant of Vaidyadeva of Kāmarūpa (twelfth century), who is said to have been victorious in southern Vanga (Ep. Ind., Vol. II, p. 355), but also in the Edilpur plate of Keśavasena, the Madanpāda plate of Viśvarūpasena, and the Sahitva Parishad plate of the same king (Inscriptions of Bengal, Vol. III, pp. 119, 133 and 141).

It thus appears that from the fall of the later Guptas (eighth century) to the break-up of the Sena dynasty (twelfth century), the more important divisions of Bengal were Vanga, Pundra, Gauda and Suhma (which latter, according to one authority, was identical with Rādhā-Nīlakantha's commentary on the Mahābhārata, and, according to another, stood for a portion, i.e. the southern portion of Rādhā, the northern portion being called Brahma).3 Other important divisions were Karnasuvarna and Varendra, Tamralipti, Bāgdī, Samatata and Harikela (of which the last two were included in or identical with Vanga). Tāmralipti was included in Suhma and Varendra in Pundra or Pundravardhana, while Karnasuvarna seems to have stood for some region perhaps identical with some portion of the northern Rādha country. Some scholars have identified it with Rāngāmāti in the Murshidabad district. 4 Others think that Karnasuvarna was situated to the west of the Bhagirathi and included Murshidabad, Bankura, Burdwan and Hughli. Bagdi, one of the four divisions of the ancient Bengal, according to Vallalasena (Gopāla Bhatta's Vallāla-Charitam,—a book of doubtful

¹ Ep. Ind., Vol. IX, p. 231.

² Chaps. 3 and 17.

³ See P. Sen. Some Janapadas of Ancient Rādha, J.H.O., Vol. VIII. No. 3.

³ See P. Sen, Some Janapadas of Ancient Rāḍha, I.H.Q., Vol. VIII, No. 3, pp. 521-9.

⁴ J.A.S.B., XXII, p. 281; Kubjika Tantra, Chap. 7. ⁵ Dey's Geographical Dicty., p. 94.

value—Pūrva-khaṇḍa, verses 6 and 7) comprised the delta of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra, and may be identified with what is now known as the 24-parganas and the Sunderbans (C.A.G.I., Ed.

Majumdar, pp. 730-1).

Samatata, as we have already said, was included in the larger divisions of Vanga. Some scholars are of opinion that it was distinct from Vanga, which lay between the Meghna on the east. the sea on the south, and the old Budiganga course of the Ganges on the north. The western boundary of Vanga appears always to have been indefinite (vide Bhaṭṭasāli, Sculptures in the Dacca Museum, pp. 4-6). Samatata is mentioned for the first time in the Allahabad Pillar Inscription of Samudragupta as one of the most important among the north-east Indian frontier kingdoms which submitted to the mighty Gupta emperor. It is also mentioned in the Karmavibhāga of the Brhatsamhitā (Chap. XIV) as an eastern country, and was visited by the Chinese travellers, Hsüan Tsang, I-tsing and Seng-chi. Hsüan Tsang describes it as 'the country of which the rivers have flat and level banks of equal height on both sides'. According to him, it was much to the south of Kamrupa and east of Tamralipta; it was low, moist and on the sea side. Samatata thus seems to have been identical with the delta of the Ganges and Brahmaputra and must have comprised, according to epigraphic evidence, the modern districts of Tipperah, Noakhali, Sylhet (J.A.S.B., 1915, pp. 17, 18), and probably portions of Barisal. That it included Tipperah is proved also by Nos. 19 and 59 of the Cambridge MSS., Add., 1643, and Foucher, Iconographie Bouddhique, Vol. I; also Bhattasāli, op. cit., pp. 12-13.

When Hsian Tsang visited the country (c. 640 A.D.), Samatata was an important kingdom. There were about 30 Buddhist Sanghārāmas with about 2,000 priests in the country, while the temples of Brahmanical gods were also numerous, and there were also many Jain (Nigantha) ascetics. During the visits of Hsian Tsang and Seng-chi, Samatata seems to have been under the rule of the Khadga dynasty. The Asrafpur copperplates of the Khadgas (Mem., A.S.B., Vol. I, No. 6) were issued from a place called Karmānta, which has been identified with Bad-Māmtā, 12 miles west of Comilla. Karmānta has often been identified as the capital of Samatata (Dey, Geog. Dicty., p. 175; Bhattasāli, ob. cit., p. 6). Later on.

¹ Regarding Vanga, Vangāla and Samataṭa, mention may be made here of H. C. Ray Chaudhuri's Bengali article, 'Vanga kon deśa' in his Studies in Indian Antiquities, Cal. Univ., pp. 184-192.

² C.1.I., Vol. III, No. 1.

³ Memoirs of A.S.B., Vol. I, No. 6; also Beal, Life of Hinen Tsang, Introduction, p. xi, No. 40.

CHAPTER LII

THE GAUDAS

The earliest literary reference to the country of the Gaudas. is made by the celebrated grammarian Pāṇini who seems to locate the country in the east (Pānini, VI, ii, 99-100). The country is also referred to in the Arthasāstra of Kautilya as well as in the Kāmasūtra of Vātsyāyana (nakhacchedya prakaraņam, ii, 13). Varāhamihira (sixth century A.D.) probably refers to the Gauda country when he places 'Gaudaka' in the eastern division of India. But the first epigraphic mention of the tribe is made in the Harāhā inscription of A.D. 554 (Ep. Ind, XIV, pp. 110ff.), where King Īśānavarman of the Maukhari dynasty claims victories over the Andhras, the Sūlikas (prob. = the Cālukyas) and the Gaudas, who are described as living on the seashore (Gaudān samudrāśrayān). It is difficult to define with any amount of certainty the exact region which the Gaudas occupied at that time. H. C. Ray Chaudhuri, however, suggests that their 'proper realm' was Western Bengal as it bordered on the sea, and included Karnasuvarna and Rādhāpurī (P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., p. 509). This may find confirmation in the combined testimony of Bana and Hsüan Tsang who state that Śaśānka or Karnasuvarna (identified with Rāngāmāti in Murshidabad, W. Bengal) was the Gauda king, the great rival of Rajyavardhana and Harsavardhana, the kings of Thanesvar (seventh century).

The fight with the Maukharis seems to have brought the Gaudas into the forefront of Eastern Indian politics. At first the Gupta-Maukhari struggle effected the serious discomfiture of the Guptas; in fact they were obliged to give up Magadha to their enemies and retire to Mālava.¹ During the reign of Rājyavardhana of Kanauj, the king of Mālava was Devagupta,² and the king of the Gaudas was Śaśānka who was also the king of Karnasuvarna, according to Hsüan Tsang. Devagupta allied himself with Śaśānka, and defeated and killed Grahavarman, the Maukhari king, who had married Rājyaśrī, sister of Rājyavardhana and Harṣavardhana. Rājyavardhana, who came to the rescue of his widowed sister, and succeeded in defeating Devagupta, was treacherously slain

1 N. Ray, The Maukharis of Kanoj, Cal. Rev., 1928, Feb.

² Bāṇa's Harṣacarita; cf. also the Madhuvan and Banskhera Inscriptions of Harṣavardhana.

by the latter's ally, Śaśāṅka, king of Gauḍa¹ (606 A.D.). Though the murdered king's brother Harṣavardhana sought to avenge his death, Śaśāṅka is known to have been still in power as late as the year 619; but his kingdom probably became subject to Harṣa at a later date.²

After the death of Śaśānka, the Gaudas seem to have faded out of history for a time; but in the first half of the eighth century they again appear on the stage, and a Gauda king is seen to occupy the throne of Magadha. This appears from the Gaudavaho, a Prākrit poem by Vākpatirāja, which records the slaying of the Gauda king, who was also the king of Magadha, by Yaśovarman, king of Kanauj. The Gauda country in Vākpatirāja's account is distinguished from the Vanga country. As its king was also the king of Magadha,

it may be assumed that it was contiguous with Magadha.

The sequel to the story of Yasovarman is given in the Rājataranginī of Kalhana. Yasovarman was defeated in his turn by Lalitaditya, king of Kaśmir, who had launched out on a career of conquest. Lalitaditya is also credited by Kalhana with having defeated another Gauda king and compelled the latter to give him his whole elephant force. We are not told who this Gauda king was or which region he ruled over. According to Kalhana, Lalitaditya had the Gauda king killed in spite of a promise given not to harm him and sworn by his favourite god Parihāsa Keśava. When the Gaudas heard of this treachery, they at once started for Kāśmīr, and entering the capital, they threw down the idol of the Rāmasvāmī temple, broke it into pieces and strewed them on the road. they were thus engaged, the royal army from Śrīnagar arrived and attacked them. Undaunted, the Gaudas continued in their work of destruction until they were annihilated by the army. Even in the time of Kalhana (twelfth century A.D.) the Rāmasvāmī temple was empty, and the heroism of the Gaudas was sung all over the valley. But it is difficult in the absence of other records to ascertain the elements of historic truth underlying this romantic story, and sober history would hardly agree to recognise it.3

Lalitāditya's grandson Jayāpīḍa (close of the eighth century) is also described by Kalhaṇa as having had some relations with the Gauḍas. He is said to have once gone to Bengal *incognito*.

¹ V. A. Smith, Early History of India (4th Ed.), p. 350.

² The Gauda country is referred to in the Apshad Inscription of Adityasena (c. 655 A.D.), where Sūkṣmaśiva, the engraver of the inscription, is mentioned as being a native of the Gauda country.

⁸ After Yasovarman's defeat Kalhana makes Lalitaditya start on a march of triumphal conquest round the whole of India, which is manifestly legendary (Stein, *Chronicles of the Kings of Kāsmīr*, Vol. I, p. 90).

Having killed a tiger which had become a terror to the city of Pauṇḍravardhana, he came to the notice of the king who ruled there, one Jayanta. Jayanta gave him his daughter in marriage, and Jayāpīḍa is then said to have subdued five kings of the Gauḍa country (which probably meant the major portion of the province of Bengal with Monghyr and Bhagalpur of the province of Bihar) on behalf of his father-in-law, and then returned to Kāśmīr in triumph with his bride. The whole story reads more as fiction than history, and serious criticism has doubted its authenticity.¹

The Gaudas are twice mentioned in Rājaśekhara's $K\bar{a}vya-m\bar{n}m\bar{a}ms\bar{a}$, where it is said that they spoke Sanskrit, but could

not speak Prākrit well (Chap. X, p. 57; Chap. 7, p. 33).

The Pāla kings of Bengal are often described as 'Lords of Gauda' (Gaudendra or Gaudeśvara) as well as 'Vangapati', in the contemporary epigraphic records of the ninth century A.D. Dharmapāla and Devapāla had often to measure swords with the Guriara Pratihāras on the one hand and the Rāstrakūtas on the other. Thus the Rādhanpur plates of Rāstrakūta Govinda III (Ep. Ind., VI, p. 248) as well as the Wani grant of the same monarch refer to a defeat inflicted by the Rastrakūta king Dhruva upon Vatsarāja, the Gurjara king, who had already defeated the king of Gauda. The Sanjan Copperplate of Amoghavarsa I tells us that Dhruva took away the white umbrellas of the king of Gauda, which were destroyed between the Ganges and the Jumna (Ind. Ant., Vol. XII, p. 159). That Dhruva actually advanced so far is also proved by a verse in the Baroda plates of Kakkarāja. This proves almost conclusively that the kingdom of Gauda in the ninth century stretched at least as far as Allahabad at the confluence of the Ganges; and Vatsarāja's son Nāgabhata is stated in the Gwalior Inscription of Bhoja to have defeated the king of Bengal (c. 810 A.D.). The Jodhpur Inscription of Bauka informs us that his father Kakka gained renown by fighting with the Gaudas at Madgagiri (or Monghyr)' (Majumdar, Gurjara Pratihāras, p. 60). The Sirur and Nilgund Inscriptions (Ep. Ind., Vol. VI) of Amoghavarsa I (866 A.D.) refer to the Rastrakūta Govinda III, who imprisoned not only the Keralas and Malavas, but also the Gaudas, whose king at that time was Devapala who is described in the Garuda Pillar Inscription of Bādal (Ep. Ind., Vol. II, pp. 160ff.) as the Lord of Gauda. It was probably during the reign of Devapala's grandson

¹ Stein, Chronicles of the Kings of Kāsmīr, Vol. I, p. 94. 'But the romantic tale of his visit incognito to the capital of Paundravardhana, then the seat of government of a king named Jayanta, unknown to sober history, seems to be purely imaginary' (Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 387).

Nārāyaṇapāla that the Rāṣṭrakūṭa king Krishna II inflicted a defeat on the Gauḍas. In the Deoli Plates he is said to have 'taught humility to the Gauḍas'. The Gauḍas are represented as having been humiliated by Krishna III as well (Karhad Plates of Krishna III, Ep. Ind., IV, p. 287). The Kāmarūpa copperplate of Vaidyadeva also refers to the Lord of Gauḍa, evidently meaning the Pāla king¹ who appointed Vaidyadeva as ruler (Ep. Ind., Vol. II,

p. 348).

After the fall of the Palas, the Gauda country seems to have passed into the hands of the Senas. Vijavasena (c. 1060 A.D.). one of the early kings of the Sena dynasty, is described in the Deopara Inscription (Ep. Ind., Vol. I, pp. 305-15) as having defeated Nānya, Vīra, and the kings of Gauda, Kāmarūpa, and Kalinga. The Madhainagar copperplate of Laksmanasena (I.A.S.B., N.S., Vol. V, pp. 467ff.) describes Laksmanasena (early twelfth century) as having suddenly seized the kingdom of Gauda, and raided Kalinga. He is referred to as Gaudeśvara, i.e. Lord of Gauda, and his sons Keśavasena and Viśvarūpasena are also referred to as Lords of Gauda (J.A.S.B., N.S., Vol. X, pp. 99-104). During the rule of the Senas the Gauda country seems to have more than once been attacked. In the Nagpur Stone Inscription of the rulers of Mālava (1104-5 A.D.), Laksmadeva, the Paramāra king, is said to have defeated the Lord of Gauda—an unhistorical claim, says Kielhorn (Ep. Ind., Vol. II, p. 193). The Pithapuram Inscription of Prithivisvara (Prithivisena) points out that King Malla is credited with having subdued among others the Lord of the Gaudas.2

The Gaudas at one time or another must have inhabited other countries and localities than the region with which they were primarily associated. The late A. M. T. Jackson pointed out that Thāneśwar was called Guḍa (a corruption of Gauḍa) in Alberuni's day (J.R.A.S., 1905, pp. 163-4). He was supported by B. C. Majumdar (J.R.A.S., 1906, p. 442), who cites a verse from the Matsyapurāṇa to the effect that Rājā Śrāvasta founded Śrāvastī in Gauḍadeśa—the evident conclusion being that 'Gauḍa must have been lying to the north of Kośala and to the north-west of Mithilā'. The reference is supported by similar references in the Kūrma and Linga Purāṇas³; and R. C. Majumdar⁴ was led to conclude that there was more than one Gauḍa. It is more

¹ Kumārapāla, acc. to Smith, Early History of India, p. 416 (4th Ed.).

² See chap. on the Vangas.

⁸ Matsya P., XII, p. 30; Linga P., I, p. 65; Kūrma P., I, 20, 19.

⁴ Gurjara Pratihāras, p. 34, f.n. 2.

likely, however, that Śrāvastī which is referred to in the Purāṇas is the same Śrāvastī which is mentioned in the Silimpur Inscription of Prahās (*Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XII, pp. 283–95), and which is to be located somewhere in North Bengal, i.e. in the Varendra country of Gauḍa.

Gonda, a subdivision of Uttara Kośala, 42 miles south of the Kośala Śrāvastī, is, according to Cunningham, a corruption of Gauda.¹ The term Pañca Gauda, often used to designate the entire territory of Northern India as far as Kanauj and the river Sarasvatī, is however late, and is probably 'reminiscent of the Gauda empire of Dharmapāla and Devapāla, and cannot be equated with the ancient realm of the Gaudas in the early centuries of the Christian era' (P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., p. 537). The ruins of the ancient city of the Gaudas, which was situated at the junction of the Ganges and the Mahānandā, can still be seen near Maldah in North Bengal, at a distance of 10 miles from the town.

¹ Cunningham, Anc. Geography, p. 408; Dey's Geographical Dictionary, p. 63.

CHAPTER LIII

THE SUHMAS

The land of the Suhmas is mentioned for the first time probably in the Ayāranga-sutta, one of the oldest sacred books of the Jainas. It is stated therein that Mahāvīra 'travelled in the pathless countries of the Lādhas, in Vajjabhūmi and Subbhabhūmi', where he was very rudely treated by the people. This Lādha is doubtless identical with what later came to be known as Rādha, and Subbhabhūmi with the country of the Suhma people. The Suhma country was thus a portion of the more comprehensive region which was later known as Rādha. According to the Epics and the Purānas, the Suhma country is distinguished from Vanga and Pundra, the two other important divisions of Bengal. The Epic account of Bhīma's eastern conquests makes the country of the Suhmas distinct from Vanga and Tamralipta. In the Dasakumāracaritam (Chap. VI), Damalipti or Tāmralipti (mod. Tamluk in Midnapur) is described as having been a city of the Suhmas, while according to the Matsyapurāna (Chap. 114) Suhma and Tāmralipti were different countries. The Jain Prājñāpānā includes Tāmalitti in Vanga (see chapter on the Vangas).

The distinction between Suhma and Vanga (and Pundra) is supported by the Epic and Pauranic tradition, which distinguishes Suhma, one of the eponymous 'Bāleya Ksatras', from his brothers Anga, Vanga, Kalinga and Pundra.2 In the Sabhāparvan (Chap. 30, 16) of the Mahābhārata, the Pāndavas are described as having subdued the Pundras and Vangas, and led their victorious army In Kālidāsa's Raghuvamśa also, Suhma is distinguished from the sea coast and the country of the Vangas (Canto IV, 35-6). According to the Pavanadūta of Dhoyīka, the Suhma country seems to have been situated on the Ganges (verse 27). Rājaśekhara's Kāvyamīmāmsā, the Suhma country along with Brahma to the north, Vanga and Pundra, was included in a list of the Janapadas of the east. In the Brhatsamhitā it is located between Vanga and Kalinga.

According to Epic tradition, Suhma was once conquered by Pāṇḍu (Mbh., Ādiparvan, Chap. 113), and at another time by Karṇa (Mbh., Karṇaparvan, Chap. 8, 19). It was in Sumbha

² See chapter on the Vangas.

¹ J.A.S.B. (New Series), Vol. XVIII, 1922, No. 7.

or Suhma that the Buddha delivered the Janapada-kalyānī Sutta, while dwelling in a forest near the town of Desaka i (Telapatta

Jātaka, Jātaka No. 96, Vol. I, p. 393).

According to Nīlakaṇṭha's commentary on the Mahābhārata, the Suhmas and the Rāḍhas were one and the same people (see Vaṅga Chap.); but from the Āyāraṅga-sutta, one may gather that the Suhma country formed a part of the Rāḍha (Lāḍha) country, the other important part having been called Brahma (cf. Brahmottara of the Purāṇas and Brahma of the Kāvyamīmāṃsā).

In the fourth Jain Upānga, called the Prājnāpānā (or Pannavanā), as well as in the fifth Jain Anga, called the Bhagavatī, Lādha is described as having been one of the 16 great Janapadas, and one of the Ariya Janapadas of India. But the name Rādha is not traceable in the Epics or any other Sanskrit record before the tenth century A.D. 'The reason for this fact seems to be that in all Sanskrit records of the period including the Great Epic, the names Suhma and Brahma have always been used to denote the Rādha country which was almost fully covered by these two Janapadas.' 2 By the end of the tenth century A.D. Rādha which seems to have comprised the whole of Western Bengal, bounded on the north and east by the Ganges and the Bhagirathi, had come to be divided into two parts: Uttara Rādha and Daksina Rādha: for Śrīdhara Bhaṭṭa, the author of the philosophical work, Nyāyakaṇḍali, composed in 991 A.D., is said to have been born in a village called Bhūrisrsti in Daksina Rādha. Moreover, the Tirumalai Rock Inscription of Rajendra Cola (1025 A.D.) mentions Uttara Rādha and Daksina Rādha as two distinct Janapadas (see Vanga Chap.); and Uttara Rāḍha is also mentioned in the Belava copperplate of Bhojavarman as well as in the Naihati copperplate of Vallalasena, as a mandala (district) included in the bhukti (limit) of Vardhamāna. It is highly probable that the two Janapadas, Brahma and Suhma, of the Epics, the Purāṇas, the Kāvyamīmāmsā, and other Sanskrit sources are identical with the two divisions of Radha (Uttara and Daksina) alluded to in the Nyāyakandali, the Tirumalai Inscription, the Prabodhacandrodaya (Canto II), and finally in the Sena records. The Radha country seems to have comprised the modern districts of Hooghly, Howrah, Burdwan, Bankura, and the major portions of Midnapur; Uttara and Daksina Rāḍha being separated by the river Ajaya.

¹ Sedaka, acc. to Samyutta Nikāya, V, 89.

² For a most interesting and original discussion of this subject, see Sen, Some Janapadas of Ancient Rādha (I.H.Q., Vol. VIII, No. 3, pp. 521ff.).

CHAPTER LIV

THE PUNDRAS

The Pundras seem to have been a very ancient people. are mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmana (VII, 18), where they are described as outcaste descendants of Viśvāmitra. Viśvāmitra. so the story goes, had many sons; but he adopted the Bhargava Sunahsepa, calling him Devarata, and made him the chief of all But the other sons did not all accept Devarāta's headhis sons. ship; and it is said that Viśvāmitra cursed those who repudiated it to become mlecchas or dog-eaters 1 such as Andhras, Pundras and Sabaras.2

The Pundras are mentioned in the Sūtras as well (cf. Baudhāyana, 1, 2, 14), and in Manu's Dharmaśāstra (10, 43-4) here in the form Paundraka. But they are most frequently mentioned in the Puranas and Epics by the name of their originator, Pundra, one of the eponymous 'Bāleya Ksatras' (see Vanga Chap.). It is said that Vāsudeva defeated the Pundras along with the Angas, Vangas, Kalingas, Kāsīs, Kosalas, Karūsas and others (Mbh., Dronaparvan, XI). Jarāsandha, king of Magadha, is referred to in the Harivamśa (Chap. 116) as having once held sway over the Pundras as well as over the Angas, Vangas and Kalingas. In the Rāmāyana (Kiskindhyā Kānda, XLI, 12), Pundra is referred to as a southern country, but, according to the Puranas and the Mahābhārata, the realm of the Pundras seems to have been situated in the eastern division, as they are always associated with the Vangas, Angas and Kalingas, as also with the Suhmas. is also supported by Rājasekhara's Kāvyamīmāmsā, which places the Pundra country in the east along with Pragiyotisa and Tamralipta.4 This determines the correctness of the usually accepted identification of the ancient Pundra country with what later came to be known as Pundravardhana.

The Pundras are sometimes referred to as Paundras, Paundrakas (cf. Manusamhitā), or even Paundrikas. In the Mahābhārata,

¹ Mahābhārata, XIII, Chap. 3.

² Cf. also Sānkhyāyana Śr. Sūtra, XV, 26; vide Pargiter, Ancient Indian Historical Tradition, p. 235.

³ Brahma P., Chap. 13, 30-1; Agni P., Chap. 278; Matsya P., Chap. 48, 19; Vișnu P., IV, Chap. 18, 1-2; Mbh., Adiparvan, Chap. 104; Garuda P., Chap. 143, v. 71.
4 Chap. 17.

these names are sometimes used as equivalents, but sometimes a distinction is made between the Paundras and Pundras.¹ Pargiter ² holds that they were two different tribes occupying two different countries. According to this theory, the Pundras, linked as they were with the Vangas and Kirātas (Sabhāparvan, XIV) and with the Angas and Vangas (Sabhāparvan, IV), occupied some intermediate position between the Angas, the Vangas, and the hilly countries of the Himalayas. Accordingly, the Pundra country should be identified with Maldah, portions of Purnea, east of the Kosi, and parts of Dinajpur and Rajshahi. The Paundras, however, linked as they were with the Udras, Utkalas, Mekalas, Kalingas and Āndhras (Bhīsmaparvan, IX; Dronaparvan, IV), occupied the modern district of Santal Parganas and Birbhum and northern portion of Hazaribagh.³ But as the enumeration of the countries and peoples in the Epics and Purānas is often loose, the distinction cannot be pushed very far, and in fact it is hardly ever accepted. In later literary and epigraphic records the distinction between Pundra and Paundra is never maintained.

According to the *Divyāvadāna* (pp. 21-2), Puṇḍravardhana was the eastern boundary (of the Middle Country). In the Sumāghadhāvadāna of the *Avadāna Kalpalatā* (Chap. 93, v. 10), Puṇḍravardhana is described as being situated 160 yojanas (or

640 miles) to the east of Śrāvastī.

It is not improbable that Puṇḍravardhana formed a part of the Magadhan empire during the time of the Mauryas. This is suggested by the testimony of Hsüan Tsang, who saw stūpas of Aśoka near Tāmralipta and Karṇasuvarṇa in Samataṭa, as well as in Pun-na-fa-tan-na (Puṇḍravardhana). Travelling east, Hsüan Tsang 'crossed the Ganges, and after a journey of above 600 li reached the Pun-na-fa-tan-na country. This country was above 4,000 li in circuit and its capital was more than 30 li in circuit. Twenty li to the west of the capital was a magnificent Buddhist establishment, the name of which is given in some texts as Poshih-po. Near it was an Aśoka tope at the place where the Buddha had preached for three months'. (Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, 184-5.)

On the authority of Hsüan Tsang's description of the Po-shih-po monastery in Puṇḍravardhana, Cunningham identified the capital of Puṇḍravardhana with Mahāsthān, saving that the Buddhist remains of Bhāsu Vihāra, 4 miles to the west of Mahāsthān, corresponded with those noted by Hsüan Tsang at

¹ Bhīṣmaparvan, IX; Sabhāparvan, III. ² J.A.S.B., 1897, p. 85. ³ Cunningham, Ancient Geography of India, Majumdar, Notes, pp. 723-4.

the Po-shih-po monastery, situated just 4 miles to the west of the capital city of Puṇḍravardhana.¹ This conclusion is confirmed by the mention of 'Puṇḍanagala' (= Puṇḍranagara, the city of the Puṇḍras) in a fragmentary Maurya Brāhmī Inscription paleographically dated in the second century B.C., which has been discovered at Mahāsthān, 7 miles north of the modern town of Bogra.²

About the second century B.C., then, the Pundras had their chief city at Pundranagara. Not long after, they had spread over a wider area, which came to be known as Punayadhana (= Pundravardhana), for the name Punavadhana occurs in at least two inscriptions (Nos. 102 and 217, Ep. Ind., Vol. II, pp. 108 and 380) of the Sānchi stūpa. Its inhabitants, Dhamatā (Dharmadattā) and Isinadana (Rsinandana), made gifts of architectural pieces that went to the building up of the Sanchi stupa and its walls and toranas. The Mahāsthān fragmentary inscription proves that the district of Bogra was certainly included in what later came to be known as Pundravardhana. That it also included the district of Rajshahi, or at least portions of it, is proved by the recently discovered Pāhārpur copperplate (478-9 A.D.) which purports to have been issued from Pundravardhana city itself.3 But contemporaneously the term appears as the name of a bhukti or provincial division. Thus, in the Damodarpur (a village in the Dinajpur district) Copperplate Inscriptions (Ep. Ind., XV, pp. 113ff.) of Kumāragupta I (443 and 448 A.D.) and of Budhagupta. the Pundravardhanabhukti is referred to as being governed successively by Cirātadatta, Brahmadatta and Yayadatta, all provincial In all these records, Kotivarsavisaya is recorded as a subdivision of the Pundravardhanabhukti. But naturally enough it is in the epigraphic records of the Palas and Senas of Bengal that the name most frequently occurs. Pundravardhana continued as in the days of the Guptas to be a provincial division of Bengal. Among the Pala records, it is referred to in the Khalimpur grant of Dharmapāla, the Nālandā grant of Devapāla, the Bāngarh grant of Mahīpāla I, the Amgachi grant of Vigrahapāla III and

¹ A.S.R., XV, p. 110.

² This inscription has been edited by D. R. Bhandarkar for the *Ep. Ind.* Cf. also 'Mahāsthān and its environs' (monograph No. 2); and also D. R. Bhandarkar's 'Important Fragmentary Inscription found at Mahāsthān (Bogra district) belonging to the Varendra Research Society', published in the *Indian Antiquary*, September, 1033.

⁸ In the Sangli copperplates (Saka year 855) of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa king Govinda Suvarṇa-varṣa, Pauṇḍravardhananagara is mentioned as the place from which the donee, Keśava Dīkṣita, is said to have come (*Ind. Ant.*, XII, pp. 251ff.).

the Manhali grant of Madanapāla.¹ Among the Sena grants it is referred to in the Barrackpur grant of Vijayasena, the Anulia, the Tarpanadighi, the Madhainagar and the Sunderban copperplates, all of Laksmaṇasena, the Edilpur copperplate of Keśavasena, the Madanapāḍā and the Sāhitya Parishad copperplates of Viśvarūpasena (for Sena records, see *Inscriptions of Bengal*,

Vol. III, Varendra Research Society).

During the rule of the Guptas, the Pundravardhanabhukti included as we have seen Kotivarsavisaya, which must have included the whole or a part of Dinajpur. It is certain that by that time (c. 535-720 A.D.) Pundravardhana stood for the greater part of North Bengal, including at least the modern districts of Rajshahi, Bogra, Dinajpur, and portions probably of Maldah and Rungpur. But in the time of the Palas (c. 730-1060 A.D.), the Pundravardhanabhukti must have comprised a larger area, while the Senas must have ruled over a still larger division. We are led to this conclusion by the fact that the records of these two dynasties refer to the following subdivisions as included in the larger division of Puṇḍravardhanabhukti: The Koṭivarṣaviṣaya (Dinajpur), the Vyāghrataṭi maṇḍala (Maldah), the Khāḍiviṣaya (identical with the Sunderbans and the 24-Parganas), Varendri (roughly identical with Rajshahi, Bogra, Rungpur and Dinajpur), and Vanga (Eastern Bengal, more particularly the Dacca division). That Pundravardhana included Varendri as well as Gauda (Maldah and Dinajpur) is also proved by a reference in Purusottama's lexicon (eleventh century A.D.), where we have 'Pundrah syur Varendri-Gauda-nivrti', i.e. 'the Pundras include the Varendri and Gauda (countries)'.

The capital city of the Puṇḍravardhanabhukti is referred to in the Rāmacaritam of Sandhyākara Nandi (eleventh century A.D.), as well as in the Karatoyā Māhātmyam (sixteenth century A.D.) as Śrī Puṇḍravardhanapura, and also as Puṇḍranagara. According to the Rāmacaritam (Kavipraśasti, v. 1), Śrī Puṇḍravardhanapura seems to have been situated in Varendri, for it is there stated that Varendri was the foremost place of the east, and Puṇḍravardhana-

pura was its 'crest jewel', or the most beautiful ornament.

Puṇḍravardhana is also referred to in a picture label of a manuscript of the Pāla period now in the Cambridge University Library²; and the name occurs in the Devī-bhāgavata, Padma, Matsya, Brahmāṇḍa and Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇas, as well as in the Jñānārṇava Tantra. According to the Rājataraṅgiṇī, Pauṇḍra-

 ¹ For Pāla Inscriptions see Gaudalekhamālā (in Bengali), Varendra Research Society.
 ² Foucher, Iconographie Bouddhique de l'Inde, p. 190.

vardhana was the seat of government of Jayanta, a vassal chief of the kingdom of Gauda, when Jayāpīda, king of Kāśmīr, is said to have visited it in the eighth century A.D.; but Jayanta is not recognised as historical by present-day scholars. Paundrabhukti, a shortened form of Pundra-vardhana-bhukti, is referred to in the Rāmpāl copperplate of Śrīcandradeva, Belava copperplate of Bhojavarman, and Dhulla plate of Śrīcandra (for these records see *Inscriptions of Bengal*, Vol. III).

¹ See Gauda chapter; Chronicles of the Kings of Kāsmīr, pp. 93-4.

CHAPTER LV

THE KIRĀTAS

The Kirātas were a non-Aryan mountain tribe, possessing a rude culture. They are referred to in the Mahābhārata (XII, 207, 43) together with the Yaunas or Yavanas, Kāmbojas, Gāndhāras, and Barbaras, who all dwelt in the northern region or Uttarāpatha; while the Rāmāyana mentions them along with the Mlecchas, or 'barbarians', another non-Aryan tribe. That the Kirātas were outside the Aryan fold is evident from a passage in the Śrīmad-bhāgavatam (II, 4, 18) which states that the Kirātas along with the Hūṇas, Andhras, Pulindas, Pulkasas, Ābhīras, Suhmas, Yavanas, Khasas, and other impure tribes purified themselves by offering their allegiance to Śrī-Kṛṣṇa. The Kirātas are mentioned in the Viṣṇupurāṇa (Wilson's Ed., II, pp. 156-90), in a long list of Indian peoples and countries, where they also seem to have been located in the northern region.

That the Kirātas were located in the Uttarāpatha seems also to have been attested to by Ptolemy who includes the Kirrhadai (or Kirrhodoeis) among the tribes of Sogdiana (present-day Soghd), which was divided from Baktriana by the river Oxus McCrindle, Ancient India, p. 277). Kirrhadia, the country of the Kirrhadai, is mentioned in the Periplus of the Erythraean Sea as lying west from the mouth of the Ganges. This reference seems to suggest that the Kirātas had settlements in the eastern region Ptolemy's Kirrhadoi or Airrhadoi spread widely not only over Gangetic India, but also over countries farther east. The Mahābhārata, too, seems to point to a settlement of the Kirātas in Kāmarūpa; we are told that Bhagadatta, the powerful ruler of Prāgiyotisa (= Kāmarūpa), led a mighty Mleccha army of Kirātas and Cīnas in the battle of Kuruksetra. For further remarks on the location of the Kirātas or Kirrhadoi, see Lassen's Indisches Alterthum, Vol. III, pp. Pliny 235-7. Megasthenes also mention the tribe under the name Skyrites. According to Megasthenes, they were a nomadic people 'who instead of nostrils have merely orifices'. They were probaly a flat-nosed people of primitive origin dwelling in forests and mountains and living by hunting.

Long assures us 1 that there is still a tradition in Tripurā, precisely where Ptolemy places his Kirrhadia, that the first name

¹ J.A.S.B., XIX, 'Chronicles of Tripura', p. 536.

of the country was Kirāt. The Kirātas had an influential settlement in Nepal, and a Kirāta dynasty of kings held the valley in sway in succession to the Ābhīras. Sylvain Levi has pointed out that the Nepalese usage still gives the name Kirāta to the country between the Dudh-kosi and the Arun, and that there is evidence that the Kirātas once occupied a much more extensive area in Nepal.¹

¹ Lé Nepal, II, pp. 72-8.

CHAPTER LVI

THE PRĀGJYOTIŞAS

If the story of Kṛṣṇa's fight with the demons Muru and Naraka, as told in the Viṣṇupurāṇa,¹ the Mahābhārata,² and the Harivaṇá,³ can be interpreted as having an ethnological significance, then undoubtedly the Prāgjyotiṣas were a people of non-Aryan extraction. The Epics definitely describe the country of Prāgjyotiṣas as an Asura or Dānava kingdom ruled over by the demons, Naraka and Muru, with whom the leaders of Aryanism were in frequent conflict. The Pauranic description of Naraka, the Asura leader, attributes to him immense power and a strength that baffled and perplexed even Indra. The environs of his capital city called Prāgjyotiṣapura were defended by nooses constructed by the demon Muru. Of course, the Aryan leader, Kṛṣṇa, is described as having got the better of the fight with the demons, which may be interpreted as one of the exploits in the history of the spread of Aryan influence in the east.

The Mahābhārata in other places 4 refers to Prāgjyotiṣa as a Mleccha kingdom ruled over by a king named Bhagadatta who is always spoken of in respectful and even eulogistic terms. Bhagadatta is styled a Yavana, 5 probably denoting that he did not belong to the Aryan fold. The Udyogaparvan describes him as the son of Naraka, the Prāgjyotiṣa king, and as an ally of Duryodhana. 6 Among his retinues Bhagadatta counted the Cīnas (the people of China), 7 and if the Kālayavana of the Viṣṇupurāṇa refers to the same king, as Wilson seems to think, 8 he also 'assembled many myriads of Mlecchas and barbarians' among his followers. The Mahābhārata mentions him as a king of boundless might (aparyanta-bala) ruling over (the country of) Muru and Naraka. 9

¹ Wilson's Ed., 5, XXIX, 88ff.

² Vanaparvan, XII, 488; Udyogaparvan, XLVII, 1887-92.

⁸ CXXI, 6791-9; CXXII, 6873, etc.

⁴ Sabhāparvan, XXV, 1000-1; ibid., L, 1834; Udyogaparvan, CLXVI, 5804; Karņaparvan, V, 104-5.

⁵ Sabhāparvan, XII, 578-80; ibid., L, 1834-6.

⁶ Chap. IV.

⁷ Udyogaparvan, XVIII, 584-5.

⁸ Wilson's Viṣṇupurāṇa, Bk. V, pp. 54-5.

⁹ Sabhāparvan, I, 578-9:

^{&#}x27;Murum ca Narakam caiva sāsti yo Yavanādhipah aparyantabala-rājā pratīcyām Varuno yathā. Bhagadatto mahārājo Vrddhastavapituh sakhā sa vacā pranatastasya karmanā ca visesatah.'

According to the Mahābhārata, Prāgiyotisa was situated in the northern region of India 1; but the Markandeya Purana places it in the eastern region, together with the Brahmottaras (or Suhmottaras), Pravijayas (perhaps Prāvrseyas), Bhārgavas, Jñeyamallakas, Madras, Videhas, Tāmraliptakas, Mallas and Magadhas; or together with the Candreśvaras, Khaśas, Magadhas, and Lauhitvas.2 The mountainous regions called Antar-giri, Vahirgiri, and Upa-giri in the Mahābhārata³ appear to comprise the lower slopes of the Himalayas and the Nepalese Terai; and it is not unlikely that the Pragiyotisas lived contiguously, as Bhagadatta is called Sailalaya ('one whose abode is in the mountains').4 According to the Abhidhanacintamani, Pragjyotisa was the same as Kāmarūpa, though in the Raghuvamśa the Prāgjyotisas and Kāmarūpas are described as two different peoples. Generally speaking, the two countries came in later times to be regarded as one and the same. In the Kālikāpurāņa,6 for example, the capital of Kāmarūpa is called Prāgjyotisapura, which has been identified with Kāmākhyā or Gauhātī. The Raghuvamśa seems to locate Prāgiyotisa beyond the Brahmaputra, but Kālidāsa's knowledge of distant geographical locations is not always satisfactory. For all practical purposes, Prāgjyotisa may, therefore, be identified with the whole of Assam proper, along with Northern Bengal as far as Rungpur and Cooch Behar, which is the territory comprised by Kāmarūpa, according to the Yoginītantra.8

King Bhagadatta, as we have seen, was a Mleccha, and his people also Mlecchas or Yavanas, i.e. non-Aryans, but the *Rāmāyaṇa* ascribes the foundation of the kingdom to Amūrtarājas, one of the

four great sons of King Kuśa—a significant Aryan name.

According to the *Brahmāṇḍapurāṇa* and the *Rāmāyaṇa*, there seems to have been another Prāgjyotiṣapura on the river Vetravatī or Betwa.

The later kings of Kāmarūpa, who claimed to have been descended from the line of Narakāsura and Bhagadatta, figured prominently in Indian history. Most important of them was Kumāra Bhāṣkaravarman, an ally of Harṣavardhana Śilāditya, and referred to both by Bāṇa (in his *Harṣacarita*) and by Hsüan Tsang, the celebrated Chinese pilgrim.

¹ Sabhāparvan, XXV, 1000; Vanaparvan, CCLII, 15240-2.

<sup>Pargiter's Ed., pp. 327-30, 357.
Sabhāparvan, XXV, 1000—XXVI, 1012.
Prāgjyotiṣaḥ Kāmarūpaḥ, IV, 22. The name Kāmarūpa seems to have come</sup>

⁵ Prāgjyotiṣaḥ Kāmarūpaḥ, IV, 22. The name Kāmarūpa seems to have come into use later.

⁶ Chap. 38. 7 IV, 81. 8 Imp. Gaz. India, XIV, p. 331. 9 Brahmāndapurāņa, Chap. 27; Rāmāyaņa, Kiskindhyā Kānda, Chap. 42.

King Prālamba of Kāmarūpa (c. 800-825 A.D.) is described in the Tezpur plates of his grandson as 'Prāgjyotiseśa', i.e. 'ruler of Prāgiyotisa'. His grandson Vanamāla claims to belong to the line (anvaya) of the lords of Pragivotisa, and so also does Balavarman, another king of the same dynasty (c. 975 A.D.). During the earlier half of the eleventh century A.D., the capital city of Pragiyotisa seems to have attained great eminence under the kingship of Ratnapala. In the Bargaon grant of this king, the city is referred to as impregnable, and rendered beautiful by the Lauhitya (= Brahmaputra river?).2

The Kamauli grant of Vaidyadeva (c. 1100) refers to the Mandala of Kāmarūpa and the Viṣaya of Prāgjyotiṣa, which implies that the latter was the larger administrative division,

including Kāmarūpa.

Rājyamatī, a daughter of King Harṣavarman Prāgjyotiṣa (according to the stray plate of King Harjara),4 is described as Bhagadattarājakulajā, i.e. born of the family of King Bhagadatta.

¹ J.A.S.B., 1840, IX, 2, pp. 766ff. ² *Ibid.*, 1898, I₄XVII, pp. 115-8.

³ Ep. Ind., XII, pp. 37ff.

⁴ I.H.Q., Dec. 1927, p. 841, f.n. 1. ⁵ Ind. Ant., 1880, IX, p. 179; J.R.A.S., 1898, pp. 384-5.

CHAPTER LVII

THE BULIS—THE KOLIYAS—THE MORIYAS— THE BHAGGAS—THE KĀLĀMAS

We may group together a number of lesser tribes which are occasionally referred to in the Buddhist texts, particularly in the *Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta*. They may be enumerated as follows:—

(1) The Bulis of Allakappa.

(2) The Koliyas of Devadaha and Rāmagāma.

(3) The Moriyas of Pipphalivana.

(4) The Bhaggas of Sumsumāra Hill.

(5) The Kālāmas of Kesaputta.¹

These five clans or tribes are mere passing shadows in the early Buddhist records, there being scarcely any data for an historical account of them. The Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta mentions the Bulis of Allakappa, the Kolivas of Rāmagāma and the Morivas of Pipphalivana, along with the Licchavis of Vesāli, the Śākyas of Kapilavatthu and others, as so many distinct clans or corporations, all of whom claimed shares of the bodily remains of the Buddha Gautama on the ground that, like the deceased master, they were of the Ksatriya caste.2 The claimants are said to have obtained their respective shares of relics, which they enshrined with customary ceremonies. The Bulis of Allakappa and the Kolivas of Rāmagāma had the good fortune to obtain one share each of the bodily remains, while the Moriyas of Pipphalivana had to be satisfied with a share of the ashes, as they were rather late in sending their messenger to Kuśīnārā. One of their descendants (or at least a namesake of theirs)—a Moriya of Pātaliputra—was more fortunate. The existing Buddhist traditions all agree on the fact of the redistribution of the relics of the Buddha (with the exception of those enshrined at Rāmagāma by the Kolivas) in the time of King Aśoka Moriva (Maurva).

The legend from the Aśokāvadāna, as summarised by the late Dr. Vincent Smith, is as follows: 'When King Aśoka desired to distribute the sacred relics of the body of Buddha among the eighty-four thousand stūpas erected by himself, he opened the stūpa of the Urn, wherein King Ajātaśatru had enshrined the

¹ Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 22.

² Dīgha Nikāya, II, pp. 164ff., Buddhist Suttas, S.B.E., Vol. XI, p. 132.

cremation relics collected from seven of the eight original stūpas. The eighth, that at Rāmagāma, was defended by the guardian Nāgas, who would not allow it to be opened. The relics thus withdrawn from the stūpa of the Urn were distributed among eighty-four thousand stūpas, "resplendent as the autumn clouds" which were erected in a single day by the descendant of the Mauryas.' A similar legend can be gathered from the Sinhalese chronicles and other late Pāli works, particularly Buddhaghosa's commentary on the Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta; while the epilogues attached to the Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta and the Buddhavamsa indicate that the sacred relics of the Buddha's body were, after their re-distribution, enshrined all over Northern India from Gandhāra to Kalinga.

The Mahāvaṃsa Commentary furnishes us with some interesting information about the origin of the Moriyas of Pipphalivana and their connection with the Maurya rulers of Magadha. We are told that there are two theories about the derivation of the name Moriya. According to one theory, the name is derived from 'modiya', meaning pleasing or delightful; the Moriyas were a people who lived in a delightful land. According to the other, the name is connected with 'mora', peacock, and the people came to be known as Moriyas from the fact that the place where they founded their city always resounded with the cries of peacocks. Further, the city which they founded had buildings of blue stone, like the neck of the peacock. It is said that the Moriyas were originally Śākyan princes of Kapilavatthu, who escaped to the Himālaya regions to save themselves from the attacks of Viḍūḍabha, the ambitious and cruel usurper of the throne of Kośala, and established a city there, building it around a lake in a forest tract abounding in peepul trees.

When the Moriyas are introduced to us in the Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta, they are contemporaries and powerful rivals of the Śākyas of Kapilavastu. Viḍūḍabha's invasion of Kapilavastu and the carnage committed upon its citizens took place, if the tradition is to be believed, shortly before the demise of the Buddha. There may be some truth in the suggestion that the Moriyas were in some way connected with the Śākyas of Kapilavastu, and with the advance of ethnological researches it may be found that the matri-

¹ Vincent Smith, Aśoka, 2nd Ed., pp. 251-2.

² Sumangalavilāsinī, Burmese edition, Pt. II, pp. 183ff.; P.T.S. Ed., II, 609ff. ³ Dīgha Nikāya, II, p. 167; The Buddhavamsa and the Cariyāpiṭaka, J.P.T.S., 1882, p. 68; The Minor Anthologies of the Pali Canon, Pt. III, translated by B. C. Law, p. 87.

⁴ Mahāvamsa Tīkā (Sinhalese edition), pp. 110ff.

monial alliance of the Śākyas with the neighbouring hill peoples brought some new tribes into existence.

Moreover, the Mahāvaṃsa Commentary traces the origin of the Maurya rulers of Magadha to the Moriyas of Pipphalivana. According to this account, Candragupta, the founder of the Maurya dynasty, was born of the chief queen of the Moriyan king of Pipphalivana. This conflicts with the evidence of Viśākhadatta's Mudrārāksasa, where Candragupta is represented as a Vṛṣala,1 a person of low birth, an illegitimate son of the last Nanda king by a Śūdra woman named Murā. How far Viśākhadatta's account represents the true state of things is a controversial point. But there are many instances of a misconception of history resulting from a conjectural etymology of personal and dynastic names. It appears, however, that the royal family of the Nandas was connected by matrimonial alliance with the Moriyas of Pipphalivana; and Aśoka's mother, Dhammā, was also a Moriyan princess.2

As regards the Kālāmas of Kesaputta, our information is very meagre. There is a bare mention of them in the Nikāyas, but no doubt they existed at the time of the Buddha as a distinct tribe or clan. Their home was probably in a mountain fastness, not far from the upper Gangetic valley. The etymology of the name 'Kesaputta' indicates that the tribe traced its descent from the Keśins, a tribe connected with the Pañcālas.8

Among members of the Kālāma clan specially mentioned by name are Bharandu-Kālāma,4 who was once a co-disciple of the Buddha (as Bodhisattva), and Alara-Kalama, a renowned religious teacher, who is mentioned frequently in the Mahāparinibbana Suttanta 5 and in other Buddhist texts, ancient and modern. One caravan merchant named Pukkusa, a young Mallian, was a disciple of Āļāra-Kālāma. Pukkusa laid much emphasis on the spiritual attainments of Kālāma. He said that his preceptor's ecstatic trance was so very deep and profound that a long train of heavily laden carts passed by him without his perceiving them.6 The Buddhist texts represent the Kālāmas as worshippers of the Buddha Gautama, who was a disciple of Āļāra-Kālāma, before his enlightenment.⁷ The Buddha preached a famous sermon when on a visit to Kesaputta.8

Little is known of the Bulis, apart from the fact that they claimed and obtained one-eighth share of the Buddha's relics and

¹ Act III, pp. 134-6, 141-3, etc.

² Vamsatthappakāsinī (Mahāvamsa Tīkā), P.T.S., 189.

⁸ Vedic Index, Vol. 1, p. 468. ⁴ Angultara Nikāya, I, 277 f. 5 Dīgha Nikāya, II, pp. 130–1.
6 Buddhist Suttas, S.B.E., Vol. XI, p. 76.
7 Kern, Manual of Indian Buddhism, p. 18.
8 Anguttara Nikāya, I, 188 f.

raised a stūpa over them in their city of Allakappa.¹ Their territory was probably near Vethadīpa, for the king of Allakappa is mentioned ² as being in intimate relationship with the king of

Vethadīpa.

The Kolivas were one of the republican clans in the time of the Buddha, and owned two chief settlements—one at Rāmagāma and the other at Devadaha. The commentaries contain accounts of the origin of the Kolivas. For instance, the Sumangalavilāsinī 8 states that the eldest of the five daughters of Okkāka contracted leprosy (kuṭṭharoga). Her four brothers, being afraid of infection, took her to a forest and there confined her in an underground chamber. Rāma, king of Benares, contracted the same complaint at this time, entered the forest, and cured himself by eating wild fruits and leaves. Hearing the voice of a woman one night, he discovered the princess in her underground chamber. He cured her by means of the fruits and leaves which had cured him, and then married her. He built a town in the forest, removing a big Kola tree in order to do so. Inasmuch as the town was built on the site of the Kola tree, it came to be called Kolanagara, and the king's descendants were known as Koliyas.

We find a variant of the story in the Mahāvastu,4 which tells us that the daughter of a certain Sakya noble was attacked with leprosy. The physicians failed to cure her; sores appeared all over her body, and the people began to hate her. She was taken by her brothers in a palanquin to a spot close to the Himālayas. They dug out a subterranean room, and she was left there with plenty of food and water. They blocked up the entrance to the cave with planks, and put a large heap of dust in front of it, and then returned to Kapilavastu. After living in the stuffy room for some time, she resumed her former beauty, for the heat had cured her of leprosy. Now, not far from the cave lived a royal sage named Kola.⁵ While wandering about in the vicinity of his hermitage, Kola came to the cave where the Sakya girl lived, and saw a tiger scratching up the heap of dust with its feet. His curiosity was aroused; the sage drove away the tiger, removed the planks, and opened the door of the cave, revealing the Sakya girl. Seeing her exquisite beauty, the sage became very much attached to her, and took her along to his hermitage. Sixteen pairs of twin sons were born to the couple. When these sons were grown up, they were sent to Kapilayastu by their mother, who told them

4 Vol. I, pp. 352-5.

¹ Dīgha Nikāya, II, p. 167.

² Dhammapada Comm., I, 161.

³ Pt. I, pp. 260-2.

⁵ A variant of Rāma; Kola also is stated to have been a king of Benares.

that they would there be provided for by their uncles, who were Śākya nobles. She trained them in the manners of the Śākyas. and they were then allowed to set out. They saluted their parents and went to Kapilavastu. On arriving, the sons of the sage, surrounded by a vast crowd, went to the assembly hall of the Sākyas, where five hundred Sākyas were assembled and transacting business. They approached the assembly in the way their mother had taught them. The Sakya assembly was astounded to see the Sakya manners in them, and asked them whence they came. They answered as they had been instructed, 'We are sons of Kola, the royal sage, who has his hermitage somewhere at the foot of the Himālayas. Our mother is the daughter of a certain Sākya.' Hearing this, the Sākyas were pleased to learn that the youths were born of the royal sage, and not of some one of inferior rank. Recognising them as Śākyas, they said, 'Let them be given Śākya girls and appointments.' They were given Śākya brides, cultivable lands, and villages. As the princes were sons of the sage Kola, they were known as Kolivas.

It is stated in the Introduction to the Kunāla Jātaka 1 that the Koliyas used to dwell in the Kola tree. Hence they came to be called 'Kolivas' or dwellers in Kola (jujube) trees. When the Śākyas wished to abuse the Kolivas, they said that the latter had once 'lived like brute beasts in a hollow Kola tree'. The territories of the Śākyas and Koliyas were adjacent, being separated by the river Rohini. A bitter quarrel once arose between the two tribes regarding the right to the waters of the river which irrigated the land on both sides. Incensed by insulting remarks as to their respective origins, the two tribes got themselves ready for battle, and sallied forth at eventide. Now at this time, so the story goes, the Buddha came to the spot from Sāvatthī. and sat cross-legged in the air between the two hosts. The Sakvas recognised him and at once threw down their arms with the words, 'Let the Koliyas slay us or roast us alive.' The Koliyas, on seeing the Buddha, acted in the same way. The Lord instructed them, quelled the feud and brought about a reunion. In gratitude, each tribe dedicated some of its young men to the membership of the Order, and during the Buddha's stay in the neighbourhood, he lived alternately in Kapilavastu and in Koliyanagara.2

¹ Jātaka, Fausböll, V, p. 413.

² For details of the quarrel and its results, see Jātaka, V, 412ff.; Dhammapada Comm., III, 254ff.; Sumangalavilāsinī, II, 672ff. A variant of the river-motif runs as follows: 'When the female slaves of the Śākyas and Koliyas came to the river to fetch water, and throwing the coils of cloth that they carried on their heads upon the ground, were seated and pleasantly conversing, a certain woman

The *Mahāvastu* tells us that there was a Koliya prince who aspired to rival the Buddha in the art of arrow-shooting, but he, together with others, was defeated.¹

In the *Udāna* we read of Suppavāsā, daughter of the king of the Koliyas ('Koliyadhitā'), who was helped by the Buddha when she was suffering, and who, after a healthy son had been born to her, entertained the Buddha and Sāriputta at her house.²

It is stated in the *Mahāparinibbāna Suttantā* that the inhabitants of Rāmagāma belonged to the serpent race.³ According to Cunningham,⁴ Rāmagāma (Rāmagrāma) is identical with Deokāli; some scholars hold that the Koliyas of Rāmagāma originally came from the same ethnic group as the Koliyas of Devadaha. There are no historical data for ascertaining the political relations of the Koliyas of Rāmagāma and the Śākyas.

Several other townships of the Koliyas, visited by the Buddha or by his disciples, are mentioned in literature; e.g. Uttara, the residence of the headman Pāṭaliya⁵; Sajjanela, residence of Suppavāsā⁶; Sāpūga, where Ānanda once stayed⁷; Kakkarapatta, where Dīghajānu lived⁸; and Haliddavasana, residence of the ascetics Punna Koliyaputta and Senīya.⁹

The Bhaggas (or Skt. Bhargas) were a republican tribe of Northern India in the Buddha's time (sixth century B.C.). They are mentioned not only in Buddhist works, but also in Sanskrit works of the Brāhmaṇa and Epic periods. The earliest mention of the Bhargas is made in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (VIII, 28) where reference is made to a Bhargāyana prince named Kairiśi Sutvan. They are also referred to by Pāṇini in his Aṣṭādhyāyī (IV, i, 178), where they are associated with the Yaudheyas ('na prācya Bhargādi Yaudheyādibhyaḥ'). In the Bhāṣmaparvan 10 of the Mahābhārata, mention is made of the Bhargas along with other tribes, e.g. the Andhras, Kirātas, Kośalas, Gandhāras, Sauvīras, Sindhus, etc. In both the Mahābhārata proper 11 and the Harivaṃśa, 12 the

took another's cloth, thinking that it was her own; and when owing to this a quarrel arose, each claiming the coil of cloth as hers, gradually the people of the two cities, the serfs and the labourers, the attendants, herdsmen, councillors and viceroys, all of them sallied forth ready for battle.'

¹ Mahāvastu, ed. Senart, II, pp. 76-7.

² Udāna, P.T.S., pp. 15-18.

Dīgha Nikāya (P.T.S.), Vol. II, p. 167.
 Anc. Geography of India, p. 423.
 Saṃyutta Nikāya, IV, 340.

⁶ Anguttara Nikāya, II, 62.
7 Ibid., 194.
8 Ibid., IV, 281.

⁹ Majjhima Nikāya, I, 387; see also Samyutta Nikāya, V, 115.

¹⁰ Chap. 9, p. 822.

¹¹ Vatsahhūmiñca Kaunteyo vijigye halavān balāt Bhargānāmadhipancaiva Niṣadādhipatim tathā.—Mbh., II, 30, 10, 11.

^{12 29, 73.}

Bhargas are associated with the Vatsas, as well as with the Niṣādas (II, 30, 10-11). The *Harivaṃśa* tradition describes the Bharga and the Vatsa as the two sons of Pratardana. Attention may also be drawn here to the mention of a people called 'Bhārgavas' in the Purāṇas, e.g. in the *Mārkaṇdeya Purāṇa* (LVII, 43). The Bhārgavas are also mentioned in the *Bhīṣmaparvan* (IX, 358) where the Bhargas also find mention (cf. Pargiter, *Mārk. P.*, pp. 310 note and 327-8, note). It is likely that the Bhaggas, Bhargas and Bhārgavas are one and the same people.

The epic tradition of the close association of the Bhargas with the Vatsas is corroborated by the Buddhist tradition as recorded in the *Jātakas*. The *Dhonasākha Jātaka* (No. 353) states that Prince Bodhi, son of Udayana, king of the Vatsas, had his dwelling-place on the Suṃsumāra Hill, where he built a palace called Kokanada. It seems that in Udayana's time (i.e. the sixth century B.C.), the Bhagga State was under the suzerainty of the Vatsa king.

The Bhaggas of the Sumsumāra Hill are casually referred to in some suttas of the *Majjhima* and *Saṃyutta Nikāyas*.¹ There is no doubt that the Sumsumāra Hill, their capital, was used as a fort. It was situated in a deer park at Bhesakaļāvana. In the lifetime of the Buddha, Prince Bodhi, son of Udena (Udayana), ruled over the Bhaggas, apparently as his father's Viceroy. He became a follower of the Buddha.² When the Buddha was amongst the Bhaggas, the householder Nakulapitā came to him and asked for instruction, afterwards becoming one of the devotees of the Master at Bhesakaļāvana.³ The Bhagga country lay between Vesālī and Sāvatthī.⁴ In the *Apadāna*,⁵ the Bhaggas are men-

The social customs, religious beliefs, laws and administrative systems of these minor clans were in all likelihood the same as, or similar to, those of the more important tribes dealt with in other chapters.

tioned with the Kārūsas.

¹ Majjhima Nikāya, Vol. I, pp. 332-8; Vol. II, Pt. I, pp. 91-7; Saņyutta Nikāya, Pt. III, pp. 1-5; Pt. IV, p. 116.

² Bodhirājakumāra Sutta, Majjhima Nikāya, Vol. II, p. 91; Fausböll, Jātaka, Vol. III, p. 157.

⁸ Samyutta Nikāya, Pt. III, pp. 1-5.

⁴ Malalasekera, Dictionary of Pali Proper Names, s.v. Bhaggā. The Cambridge History of India (I, 175) says that the Bhaggas were members of the Vajjian confederacy.

⁵ II, 359. Other references to the clan are: Anguttara Nikāya, II, 61; IV, 85, etc.; Vinaya Piṭaka, II, 127; IV, 115, 198; V, 145; Theragathā Comm., I, 70. See also B. C. Law, Countries and Peoples of India (Epic and Pauranic sources), A.B.O.R.I., Vol. XVII, Pt. III, April, 1936.

CHAPTER LVIII

THE LICCHAVIS

Name and Origin

The Licchavis were a great and powerful people of Eastern India in the sixth century B.C. Their peculiar form of government, their free institutions, their manners and customs, their religious views and practices afford us glimpses of India of the transition period, when the ancient Vedic culture was developing in new directions, and undergoing a transformation under the influence of the speculative activity out of which emerged the two great religions of Jainism and Buddhism. Fortunately for us, Buddhist literature, and to a lesser extent the Jaina sacred books, have preserved for us facts and comments, which, though fragmentary, are yet sufficient to give us a living picture of this interesting people. From the account of their political institutions that can be gleaned from the Pāli Buddhist Canon, we obtain an insight into the democratic ideas of statecraft and government that prevailed among the majority of the Aryan clans that peopled Northern India before the imperialistic policy grew and developed.

In Indian literature we find the name of this people in slightly varying forms—Licchavi, Licchivi, Lecchavi, Lecchaī and so on. Throughout the Pāli Canon, the name occurs in the form 'Licchavi'. In some of the Buddhist Sanskrit texts, e.g. the Divyāvadāna,¹ the name is found in this form, but in others, e.g. the Mahāvastu, the usual form is Lecchavi.² In the Chinese translations of the Buddhist sacred books, the name occurs in both forms, Licchavi and Lecchavi,³ as is to be expected, since these translations are based on the Buddhist Sanskrit texts. The Mahāvastu form Lecchavi answers very well to the Prākrit form Lecchaī, which we find in another set of works claiming to be contemporaneous in origin with the Buddhist Canon, namely, the Jaina sacred literature which, according to some scholars, began to be composed perhaps by the direct disciples of Mahāvīra in the first century after his death, or at the latest in the next century, by the time

¹ Divyāvadāna, ed. E. B. Cowell and R. A. Neil, pp. 55-6, 136.

² Mahāvastu, ed. E. Senart, Vol. I, p. 254, etc. ³ T. Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. II, p. 77.

of Candragupta Maurya, when the first Council of the Jains was held at Pātaliputra.¹

In the Sūtrakrtānga, one of the earliest works of the Jaina sacred literature, we meet with the name Lecchai,2 and the same form occurs in the Kalbasūtra attributed to Bhadrabāhu, who is considered to have been a contemporary of Candragupta (c. 321–207) B.C., according to Rapson, Ancient India, p. 182). The Jain commentators equate the Prākrit Lecchaī with Sanskrit Lecchakī.³ In the form Lecchaki, however, the name never occurs in Sanskrit literature, in which the earliest mention of the tribe, so far as we have been able to ascertain, is in Kautilya's Arthaśāstra, where they are called Licchivis. Here we read that the corporations of Licchivi, Vrji, Malla, Madra, Kukura, Kuru, Pañcāla and others were 'rājaśabdopajīvinah', i.e. enjoyed the status of rājās or kings.4 We next find the Licchavis mentioned in the Mānava Dharmasāstra (X, 22). Here there are some variæ lectiones; the anonymous Kashmirian comment on the text reads Lichavi which approximates very closely to the Buddhistic form. Medhātithi and Govindarāja, the two earliest commentators, read Licchivi, and this reading tallies exactly with the name as given by Kautilya; this form, therefore, represents the earliest spelling of the word in the Brahmanic Sanskrit literature. Kullūka Bhatta, the Bengali commentator, however, reads Nicchivi, and Rāghavānanda, another

¹ M. Winternitz, Geschichte der Indischen Litteratur, II, p. 295.

² Kalpasūtra, paragraph 128. Sīrīkalpasūtram, Bhavnagar edition, p. 192; see also Jaina Sūtras by H. Jacobi, S.B.E., Vol. XXII, p. 266, f.n. 1; Vol. XIV, part II, p. 321, f.n. 3.

⁸ Jaina Sūtras, Jacobi, S.B.E., Vol. XXII, part I, p. 266, f.n. 1.

⁴ See Kautilya's Arthaśāstra, translated by R. Shāma Shāstrī, p. 455. Sanskrit text has: 'Licchivika-Vrjika-Mallaka-Madraka-Kukura-Kuru-Pancālādayo rāja\$abdopajīvinah.' The 'ka' at the end of Licchivi, etc., is adjectival. It will be noted that Kautilya distinguishes the Licchivis from the Vrjis. Regarding this H. Panday ('Notes on the Vajji country and the Mallas of Pava', J.B.O.R.S., Vol. VI, pt. II, June 1920, pp. 259 et seq.) says that it appears from the Pāli Suttas that the names Vajji and Licchavi are interchangeable to some extent. The accounts of Chinese pilgrims, however, point to a different conclusion. Fā-Hien calls the country of which Vaiśālī was the capital, 'the kingdom of Vaiśālī', and the people of the country, 'Licchavis'. He does not mention Vrji or Vajji. Hsüan Tsang describes Vaiśāli and Vrji as two distinct countries, and Watters is inclined to doubt the accuracy of his description of the Vrji country. Ray Chaudhuri reconciles the evidence of the Pali literature with that of Kautilya and Hsüan Tsang, saying: 'Vajji was not only the name of the confederacy but also of one of the constituent clans. But the Vajjis like the Licchavis are sometimes associated with the city of Vesāli which was not only the capital of the Licchavi clan, but also the metropolis of the entire confederacy.'—(Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 101.)

commentator, follows him in this as in other matters; and the ordinary printed editions of the Manusamhitā have generally adopted this reading.1 Both Jolly and Bühler have accepted the form Licchivi, but Jolly cites two MSS, and five printed editions with the form 'Nicchivi'. Kullūka, who probably wrote in the fifteenth century, i.e. about 600 years later than Medhātithi, and about 300 years later than Govindarāja, was probably misled by the similarity of the letters 'N' and 'L' as they were written in Bengali in the fifteenth century, and as they are still written even in modern

Bengali manuscripts.2

The Sanskrit inscriptions of the early Gupta emperors favour the form 'Licchavi'. In the Allahabad Stone Pillar Inscription of Samudragupta, that monarch is described as 'Licchavidauhitra', 'the son of the daughter of the Licchavis', so we have here the same form as in the Pāli Buddhist works. The same form occurs in many other inscriptions of the Guptas, for example, in the Mathura Stone Inscription of Candragupta II,4 the Bilsad Stone Pillar Inscription of Kumāra Gupta of the year 96 5 and the Bihar Stone Pillar Inscription of Skandagupta. On the other hand, the variant Licchivi occurs in the Bhitari Stone Pillar Inscription of Skandagupta and the Gaya Copperplate Inscription of Samudragupta⁸ (which is considered to be spurious). Some coins of Candragupta I bear the name Licchavi. Moreover, in the inscriptions of the Nepal kings, who claim to be descended from the family of the Licchavis, the expression used is always Licchavikula-ketu, 'the banner (or glory) of the Licchavi family'.9 We have seen that in the Chinese translations which are based on Sanskrit Buddhist texts, the form is Licchavi or Lecchavi: Fā-Hien speaks of them as Licchavis, 10 while in Hsüan Tsang (Beal's Records of the Western World) the form is Li-ch'e p'o, which would correspond to the form Licchavi.11 The Tibetans, who began to have

6 Ibid., p. 50.

¹ For the various readings see Mānava Dharmaśāstra, ed. J. Jolly, p. 325. See also Laws of Manu, Bühler, S.B.E., Vol. XXV, p. 406, n.

² R. D. Banerjee, The Origin of the Bengali Script, Cal. Univ., 1919, p. 82, pp. 108-9. It is clear, however, that the form Nicchivi is a very old reading, as it occurs in the Sinhalese Atthakathā, which forms the basis of Buddhaghosa's

³ Inscriptions of the Early Gupta Kings, ed. J. F. Fleet—Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, p. 8.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 43. 4 *Ibid.*, p. 27. ⁸ Ibid., p. 256. ⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 53.

⁹ Ibid., p. 177 f.n.; Indian Antiquary, Vol. IX, pp. 168ff. 10 Legge, Fā-Hien, pp. 71, 76.

¹¹ Buddhist Records of the Western World, by S. Beal, Vol. II, p. 73.

the Buddhist books translated into their own language from the eighth century A.D., also have the form Licchavi.¹

There is clear evidence in the Buddhist literature to show that the Licchavis belonged to the Aryan ruling caste—the Kṣatriya. In the Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta we read that after the decease of the Buddha, the Licchavis claimed a share of the remnants of his body. They sent a messenger to the Mallas of Kuśīnara, where he had died, saying: 'The Exalted One was a Kṣatriya and so are we. We are worthy to receive a portion of the relics of the Exalted One.' Here we see that the claim of the Licchavis was based on the fact that they were Kṣatriyas or people of the same caste as the Buddha.

Moreover, we are told that a Licchavi named Mahāli says, 'I am a Khattiya (Kṣatriya), so is the Buddha'³; while in the introduction to the Śigāla Jātaka we read of a Licchavi girl, 'the daughter of a Kṣatriya and high-born'.⁴ Dr. Richard Fick in his work, The Social Organisation in North-East India in Buddha's Time, is rather sceptical as to whether the word Kṣatriya as used in the Pāli texts has exactly the same connotation as in the ancient Brahmanical literature; but Professor Oldenberg observes that there is no ground for this scepticism.

That the Licchavis were Kṣatriyas appears also from the Jaina sacred literature. Just as the Licchavis of Vaiśālī honoured the Buddha at his death by erecting a noble monument $(st\bar{u}pa)$ over their share of the remnants of his body, so they had, before this, done honour to the memory of Mahāvīra, the founder of Jainism. The $Kalpas\bar{u}tra$ narrates: 'In that night in which the venerable ascetic Mahāvīra died..., the eighteen confederate kings of Kāśī and Kośala, the nine Mallakis and nine Licchavis, on the day of new moon, instituted an illumination on the Poshadha, which was a fasting day....' The Jaina works further tell us, as Professor Jacobi points out, that these nine Licchavis were tributary to Ceṭaka, king of Vaiśālī and maternal uncle of Mahāvīra, who was

¹ Tibetan Dulva, quoted by Rockhill in his Life of the Buddha (pp. 97 et seq.); Tārānātha's Geschichte des Buddhismus in Indien, translated into German by Anton Schiefner, pp. 9, 41, 146.

² Dīghā Nikāya, P.T.S., Vol. II, pp. 164 et seq. Trsl. Prof. and Mrs. Rhys Davids, in Dialogues of the Buddha, Vol. III, p. 187.

³ Sumangalavilāsinī, Pt. I, P.T.S., p. 312.

⁴ Jātaka, ed. V. Fausböll, Vol. II, p. 5.

⁵ Prof. H. Oldenberg, On the History of the Indian Caste System, Z.D.M.G., Vol. LI; translated into English by Prof. H. C. Chakladar, Ind. Ant., Vol. XLIX, December, 1920, p. 227.

⁶ Kalpasūtra, paragraph 128, trsl. Prof. H. Jacobi, S.B.E., Vol. XXII, p. 266.

⁷ Jacobi, op. cit., note I, p. 266.

a Jñātri Kṣatriya of the Kāśyapa gotra, as we read in the Kalpasūtra. There are reasons to believe that Mahāvīra was a native of a suburb of Vaiśālī.¹ That the Licchavis were looked upon as persons of high pedigree appears from a passage in another Jaina work, the Sūtrakṛtāṅga, where we read of the 'renowned gotra' (family) of the Licchavis.²

The Licchavis were Kṣatriyas of the Vāśiṣṭha gotra, and were addressed as 'Vāśiṣṭhas' by the Buddha (Mahāvastu-Avadāna, ed. Senart, Vol. I, p. 283, and elsewhere) and by Maudgalāyana, one of the pillars of the Buddhist Church (Rockhill, Life of the Buddha, pp. 97ff.). Further, the Jaina sacred works state that the Kṣatriyāṇī Triśalā, mother of Mahāvīra, and sister of Ceṭaka,

one of the kings of Vaiśālī, belonged to the Vāśistha gotra.3

In the Nepal Vaṃsāvalī, the Licchavis are allotted to the Sūryavaṃśa or solar race of the Kṣatriyas.⁴ This is quite in agreement with the fact elicited from the Buddhist records that they were Vāṣiṣṭhas by gotra, for we know from the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa that the gotra or pravara (family) of a Kṣatriya is the same as that of his purohita or family priest.⁵ Sir R. G. Bhandarkar also points out that the gotra of a Brāhmaṇa 'could be assumed for sacrificial purposes by a Kṣatriya, for, according to Āṣvalāyana (Ṣr. S., XII, 15), the gotra and the ancestors of the Kṣatriyas invoked are those of their priests or chaplains, and the only Rṣi ancestors that all the Kṣatriyas have, are Mānava, Aila and Paurūravasa. The names of these do not distinguish one Kṣatriya family from another, and to answer the purposes of such a distinction, the gotra and ancestors of the priest are assumed'.⁶ The Vāṣiṣṭha gotra was, therefore, the gotra of their family priest, and we know that the Vāṣiṣṭhas were the family priests of the kings of the solar race, especially of the Ikṣvākus. In this connection it is interesting to note Prof. Jacobi's observation: 'According to the Jainas, the Licchavis and Mallakis' were the chiefs of Kāṣī and Koṣala. They seem to have succeeded the Aikṣvākas who ruled there in the times

² Jacobi, Jaina Sūtras, Part II, S.B.E., Vol. XLV, p. 321.

Aitareya Brāhmaņa, Ch. 34, Kāṇḍa 7, verse 25.
 Sir R. G. Bhandarkar, Vaiṣṇavism, Saivism, and minor Religious Systems,

¹ Kalpasūtra, pp. x-xii.

³ S.B.E., Vol. XXII, p. xii. See Jacobi, Jaina Sūtras, S.B.E., Vol. XXII, p. 193 (Āyārānga-sūtra, 11.15.15).

⁴ Indian Antiquary, Vol. XXXVII, p. 79.

⁷ The kinship of Licchavis and Mallas is confirmed by the *Mahāparinibbāna* Suttanta (Buddhist Suttas, S.B.E., Vol. XI, pp. 121-2), and the Saṅgāti Sutta of the Dīgha Nikāya (Dialogues of the Buddha, Pt. III, p. 202), where the Mallas are likewise addressed as 'Vāsetthas' (=Vāśisthas).

of the *Rāmāyaṇa*.'¹ The *Rāmāyaṇa* tells us that the city of Vaiśālī was founded by Viśāla, a son of Ikṣvāku and the heavenly nymph Alamvuṣā,² while the *Viṣṇupurāṇa* substitutes Tṛṇabindu, a later member of the Ikṣvāku family, as the father of the eponymous hero who founded the city. This shows that the ruling family of Vaiśālī was traditionally believed to have been descended from the Ikṣvākus.

The Licchavis were also associated with the Śākyas. We read in the *Karma-Śataka* ³ that Prabodha, king of the Vṛjis, gave away his two daughters, Māyā and Mahāmāyā, as brides to Śuddhodana, son of Simhahanu, and father of the Buddha. Rockhill in his *Life of the Buddha* (derived from Tibetan works) speaks of a tradition, according to which the Śākyas and the Licchavis were branches of the same people.⁴

We now come to the mythical account of the origin of the Licchavis, which can be gathered from Buddhaghosa's Paramatthajotikā on the Khuddakapātha. It came to pass that the chief queen of the king of Benares was with child. When her time came, she was delivered, not of a child, but of a lump of flesh, 'of the colour of lac and of bandhu and jīvaka flowers'. Fearing the displeasure of the king if he should hear of this, the other queens put the lump of flesh into a casket marked with the royal seal and placed it on the flowing waters of the Ganges. However, a certain god, wishing to provide for its safety, wrote with a piece of cinnabar on a slip of gold the words 'The child of the chief queen of the King of Benares', tied it to the casket, and replaced it in the river. The casket was discovered by an ascetic, and taken by him to his hermitage, where he cared for the lump of flesh. After the lapse of some time, the lump broke up into two pieces of flesh, which gradually assumed shape, till finally one of them became a boy resplendent like gold, and the other a girl. Whatever entered the stomach of these two infants looked as if put into a vessel of precious transparent stone (mani), so that they seemed to have no skin (nicchavi). Others said: 'The two were attached to each other by their skin (līnā-chavi) as if they had been sewn together'; so that these infants came to be designated 'Licchavis'. The ascetic, having to nurse these two children, had to enter the village in the early morning for alms and to return when the day was far advanced. Accordingly the neighbouring cowherds, seeing

¹ Jacobi, Jaina Sūtras, Pt. II, p. 321, note 3.

² Rāmāyaṇa, Bombay edition, Bāla Kāṇḍa, Chap. 47, verses 11-12.

⁸ Karma-Sataka, 20, ii, 7, trsl. from Tibetan by M. L. l'eer. Reprint, p. 40.

⁴ Rockhill, Life of the Buddha (popular edition), p. 203, note.

his difficulty, offered to look after the children for him. The ascetic gladly agreed, and handed over the two children with these words: The children are possessed of great virtue and goodness, bring them up with great care and when they are grown up, marry them to each other; please the king and getting a piece of land, measure out a city, and instal the prince there.' But the children, when grown big, used to beat and kick the children of the cowherds. Then the parents of these other children would say, 'These children harass the others and trouble them, they are not to be kept, they must be abandoned (Vajjitabbā). Thenceforward that country measuring 300 yojanas is called Vajji. Then the cowherds securing the king's permission, obtained that country, and measuring out a town there, they anointed the boy king. After giving the girl in marriage to the boy, who was then sixteen years of age, the old king made it a rule that no bride was to be brought in from outside, nor any girl from within the settlement to be given away outside. Sixteen pairs of twins were born to the couple (a boy and a girl each time), and as these children were growing up, and there was no room in the city for their gardens, pleasure groves, residential houses and attendants, three walls were thrown up round the city at a distance of a quarter of a yojana from each other; as the city was thus again and again made larger (Visālikatā), it came to be called Vesālī. This is the history of Vesālī.1

The $P\bar{u}j\bar{a}valiya$, a Ceylonese Buddhist work, gives the same account with slight variations. These stories are, of course, entirely mythical and must have grown up in recent times, there being no evidence in the sacred canon itself to corroborate any part of them.

The two derivations of the name Licchavi which are suggested by Buddhaghosa are entirely fanciful. Licchavi is the name of a race or tribe. The people must have acquired that name long before they come to our notice in the pages of the Buddhist or Jaina literature, or in the Arthaśāstra. Buddhaghosa's derivations must have been invented much later, when the Licchavis had acquired renown and power, and it was thought necessary to find some meaning for the word, which defies easy analysis. It should be observed that the two derivations suggested by Buddhaghosa are almost identical with those given in Chinese Buddhist works, indicating a common source.

It is clear that at the time the Buddha and Mahāvīra lived and preached, the Licchavis were recognised as Kṣatriyas with

¹ Paramatthajotikā on the Khuddakapātha, ed. H. Smith, P.T.S., pp. 158-60.

<sup>Spence Hardy, Manual of Buddhism, 2nd Ed., 1880, pp. 242-3.
Shan-hsien-lü (Chap. 8), T. Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. II, p. 77.</sup>

whom the highest-born princes of eastern India considered it an honour to enter into matrimonial alliance. The powerful king Ajātaśatru was always designated 'Vedehiputto', the family name of his mother in the Pāli Buddhist Tripiṭaka. Even two centuries later, in the time of Candragupta Maurya, the Licchavis were of equal rank and position with the great Kṣatriya peoples of Northern India, viz. the Madras in the north-west, the Kuru-Pañcālas in the central region, and the Mallas and others in the east—the tribes who were organised as corporations of warriors and lived upon their position as $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}s$, that is as owners of land deriving an income from their tenants.

At the time when the present code of Manu was composed, we find that the Licchavis were still looked upon as Ksatriyas, though of the Vrātya variety.1 Regarding the Vrātyas, Manu says: 'Those (sons) whom the twice-born have by wives of equal caste, but who, not fulfilling their sacred duties, are excluded from the Sāvitrī, one must designate by the appellation Vrātyas.' Here 'not fulfilling their sacred duties' stands for 'avratāh', which means 'not being initiated at the proper time', on the authority of what Manu himself states in an earlier chapter, where he fixes the upper limits of the age before which the initiation of the twiceborn castes must take place. After those periods, men of the three upper castes who had not received the sacrament become Vrātyas (outcastes) excluded from the Sāvitrī (initiation) and despised by the Aryans. Here Manu is in agreement with the earlier lawgivers, Gautama, Āpastamba, Vasistha and Baudhāyana.3 There is no question, then, that the Licchavis were pure Ksatriyas by origin but were not very careful in obeying the regulations about initiation and perhaps similar other matters.4

From what we know of the religious history of the Licchavis as a people, it is natural to expect that they would depart from the strict observance of the Brahmanic regulations. We have seen that Mahāvīra, the founder of Jainism, was of their very kin, and we also know that he had many followers among the residents of Vaiśālī, even among the highest officers. Then again, between the sixth century B.C. and 200 B.C., the earliest estimated date

¹ Manu, X, 22; Bühler, Laws of Manu, p. 406.

² Manu, X, 20; Bühler, Laws of Manu, pp. 405-6. ³ See Bühler, Laws of Manu, pp. 405-6, note 20; Gautama, XXI, 11; Āpa., I, etc.; Vaś., XI, 74-9; Baudh., I, 16, 16.

⁴ For further information regarding the Vrātyas, see J. W. Hauer, Der Vrātya: Untersuchungen Über die nichtbrahmanische Religion Altindiens; and Haraprasad Sastri's Annual Address, J.A.S.B., 1921, No. 2 (Vol. XVII, New Series).

of the Manusamhitā,¹ the Licchavis had won the good graces of the Buddha as well as of the followers of the religion he preached, as we shall see later. During this long interval, when the two great 'heretic' faiths flourished in their country, it is but natural to expect that the Licchavis were not over-particular about initiation and similar other ceremonies and practices that the regulations of the orthodox Brahmins required. Hence we can understand how Manu, the great Brahmin law-giver, came to refer to the Licchavis as Vrātyas. To claim the authority of this passage of Manu in support of a theory of non-Aryan origin of the Licchavis is quite unwarranted.

The above discussion, we hope, will also explain what the lexicographers and the author of the *Vaijayantī*, following Manu, declare regarding the origin of the Licchavis, viz. that they were

sons of a Kṣatriya Vrātya and a Kṣatriyā.2

Before leaving the question of origin, we must refer to the two theories about the Tibetan and Persian affinities of the Licchavis, originated by the late Drs. V. A. Smith and Satis Ch. Vidyābhūṣaṇa respectively. Dr. Smith's conclusion about the Tibetan affinity rests on the agreement that is observed between the Tibetans and the Licchavis in the custom of exposure of the dead and in judicial

procedure. We shall discuss these two points separately.

The prevalence among the Licchavis of the practice of exposing the dead to be devoured by wild animals is vouched for by a passage in Beal's Romantic Legend of Sakya Buddha,3 derived from Chinese sources. There we have a description of a visit paid by the Bodhisattva (future Buddha) to a cemetery at Vaiśālī, where the Rsis are stated to have told him: 'In that place the corpses of men are exposed to be devoured by the birds; and there also they collect and pile up the white bones of dead persons....; they burn corpses there also, and preserve the bones in heaps. They hang dead bodies also from the trees; there are others buried there, such as have been slain or put to death by their relatives, dreading that they should come to life again; whilst others are left there upon the ground that they may return, if possible, to their former bodies.' Dr. Smith argues that this passage 'proves a belief that the ancient inhabitants of Vaiśālī disposed of their dead sometimes by exposure, sometimes by cremation, and sometimes by burial. The tradition is supported by the discoveries made at prehistoric cemeteries in

² Monier Williams, Sanskrit-English Dictionary, 1899, p. 902; Vaijayantī, ed. Gustav Oppert, p. 76.

³ pp. 159-60.

¹ According to Bühler, the *Manusmṛti* was compiled at some time between 200 B.C. and 200 A.D. (Bühler, *Manu*, Introduction, p. cxvii).

other parts of India, which disclose very various methods of disposing of the dead.' He then concludes from the similarity between these customs of the disposal of the dead, and those of Tibet, that the Licchavis had Tibetan affinities. But we need not go to Tibet for these customs, inasmuch as they were prevalent among the Vedic Aryans from whom the Licchavis were descended. We read in the well-known funeral hymn of the Atharvaveda2: 'They that are buried, and they that are scattered $(v\bar{a}p)$ away, they that are burned and they that are set up (uddhita)—all those Fathers, O Agni, bring thou to eat the oblation'. Whitney, whose translation of the verse we have quoted here, observes on the expression *Uddhitāh*, 'it evidently refers to exposure on something elevated, such as is practised by many people'.4 Whitney also refers to an analogous passage in Apastamba (I, 87) which contains a further reference to the customs of burial and exposure on a raised platform.⁵ The Vedic literature shows that cremation was one of the methods of the disposal of the dead. Methods other than cremation were in vogue, it seems, in particular localities and among particular classes or peoples; and the custom of exposure of the dead was most probably brought into India by the Vedic Arvans. as we find the same custom among the closely allied Iranians. seek for the origin of this ancient Aryan custom in Tibet is absolutely unwarranted. The other argument of Dr. Smith, that the ancient judicial procedure at Vaiśālī as given in the Atthakathā is substantially identical with the modern procedure at Lhāsā as observed by the Bengali traveller in Tibet, the late Rai Bahadur Sarat Chunder Das, C.I.F., need not detain us very long. This procedure the Tibetans may well have imbibed along with Buddhism from the province of Tirhut, which was nearest to their frontiers, and which was inhabited by the descendants of the Licchavis of old.

Satis Chandra Vidyābhūṣaṇa held that the Licchavis were of Persian origin. His strongest argument is the verbal coincidence between Nisibis in the Persian Empire, and the word Nicchivi which occurs in *Manu*. He continues: 'It appears to me very probable that while about 515 B.C., Darius, king of Persia, sent an expedition to India, or rather caused the Indus to be explored

¹ Indian Antiquary, Vol. XXXII, 1903, p. 234.

² XVIII, 2, 34. 'Ye nikhātā ye paroptā ye dagdhā ye coddhitāh sarvāṃstānagna āvaha pitrīn haviṣe attave.'—Atharvaveda Saṃhitā, ed. Roth and Whitney, p. 339.

³ Atharva Samhitā, trsl. W. D. Whitney, revised and ed. C. R. Lanman, Harvard Or. Series, Vol. VIII, p. 840.

⁴ Ibid., p. 841.

⁵ With regard to this passage see also Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, p. 402; and Macdonell and Keith, Vedic Index, Vol. I, p. 8.

from the land of the Pakhtu (Afghans) to its mouth, some of his Persian subjects in Nisibis (off Herat) immigrated to India, and having found the Punjab over-populated by the orthodox Brāhmaṇas, came down as far as Magadha (Bihar) which was at that time largely inhabited by Vrātyas or outcaste people.' This is absurd on the face of it. The Licchavis were already a flourishing people, long established in the Videha country, and had built up a splendid capital at Vaiśālī at the time of the Buddha's death; and whether we take the date of this event to be 487 B.C., as the late V. A. Smith thought, or 544 B.C., the traditional date maintained by the Ceylonese Buddhist monks, it is absurd to identify the Licchavis with the followers or subjects of Darius who were exploring the Indus about 515 B.C.

It remains for us to refer to another theory about the foreign origin of the Licchavis, started by Beal, viz. that they were 'Yuechi'.2 It hardly requires to be refuted, as the Yue-chi came to India about the beginning of the Christian era, and the Licchavis were a highly civilised and prosperous people in the fifth and sixth centuries B.C. when the Ephathalites or White Huns had not started from their original home in the east.

Vaiśālī, the Capital of the Licchavis

Vaiśālī, 'the large city' par excellence, is renowned in Indian history as the capital of the Licchavi rajas and the headquarters of the powerful Vajjian confederacy.³ This great city is intimately associated with the early history of both Jainism and Buddhism.

Vaiśālī claims the founder of Jainism as its citizen. The Sūtrakṛtāṅga,4 a Jaina canonical work, says of Mahāvīra, the last Tīrthankara of the Jains: 'Thus spoke the Arahat Jñātrputra, the reverend, famous native of Vaisali, who possessed the highest knowledge and the highest faith.' 5 Mahāvīra is spoken of as Vesālie or Vaiśālika, i.e. a native of Vaiśālī.6 Moreover, Abhayadeva in his commentary on the Bhagavatī (2, 1, 12, 2) explains Vaiśālika by Mahāvīra and speaks of Viśālā as Mahāvīrajananī or 'the mother of Mahāvīra'.7 Besides, from a comparison of the

¹ Indian Antiquary, Vol. XXXVII, 1908, p. 79.

² The Life of Hiuen-Tsiang by Beal, Intro. p. xxii.

³ Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 40.

⁴ Jacobi, Jaina Sūtras, S.B.E., Pt. II, p. 261 (Sūtrakrtānga, 1, 2, 3, 22).

Ibid., Pt. II, Lecture VI, 17, p. 27 (Uttarādhyayanasūtra).
 Jacobi; Jaina Sūtras, Pt. I, Introduction, xi.

⁷ Weber, Indische Studien, Band XVI, p. 263: 'Auch Abhayadeva zu Bhag. 2, I, 12, 2 erklärt Vaiçālika durch Mahāvīra, und zwar als Metronymicum (l); Viçālā Mahāvīrajananī.'

Buddhist and Jaina scriptures, it appears that Kundagrāma, the birthplace of Mahāyīra, was a suburb of Vaiśālī. As we have already seen, Mahāvīra's mother Triśalā was a sister of Cetaka, one of the rājās of Vaiśālī. The Jaina Kalpasūtra speaks of the connection of Mahāvīra with the Videha country and its capital Vaiśālī.² During his later ascetic life Mahāvīra did not neglect the city of his birth, and we are told that out of the 42 rainy seasons of this period of his life, he passed no less than 12 at Vaiśālī.³

The connection of the Buddha with Vaiśālī is no less close. Many of his immortal discourses were delivered here either at the mango-grove of Ambapālī, on the outskirts of the city, or at Kūtāgāraśālā in the Mahāvana, the great forest stretching out up to the Himalayas. The Buddha was charmed with the conduct of the Vajjis or Licchavis residing within the town, and looked upon them with kindness and approbation. The seven points of excellence,4 with which he characterised the Licchavis in answer to the queries put to him by the ministers sent by King Ajātaśatru of Magadha, are very well known.

One hundred years after the Buddha's Nirvāna, Vaiśālī again drew to itself the care and attention of the Buddhist Church,but this time not on account of the many good qualities of character and powers of organisation of its citizens, but because of the secular tenets held by the Vaiśālī monks (Vajjiputtaka bhikkhus), who were not carrying out the Master's precepts conscientiously. second general council of the Buddhist Church, known as the Sattasatika or the Convention of the 700, took place at Vaisālī in order to suppress the heresies of these pleasure-seeking monks.⁵

We have already referred to the fanciful accounts of Buddhaghosa, the Rāmāyana and the Visnupurāna regarding the origin of Vaiśālī. The Rāmāyana further tells us that when Rāma and his brother Laksmana, guided by the sage Viśvāmitra, crossed the river Ganges on their way to Mithila, they had a view of the city of Vaiśālī. It does not tell us that it was exactly on the bank of the river, but says that 'while seated on the northern shore they saw the town'. Then, the story goes on, the travellers went to the city of Viśālā which was an excellent town, 'charming and

¹ Jacobi, Jaina Sūtras, S.B.E., Vol. XXII, pp. x-xi.

² Ibid., Vol. I, p. 256, Kalpa Sūtra, paragraphs 110, 111.

³ Jacobi, Kalpasūtra, paragraph 122.

Dīgha Nikāya, II, 73f.; Anguttara Nikāya, IV, 15f.
 Dialogues of the Buddha, Pt. II, pp. 131ff.; Kern, Manual of Indian Buddhism, pp. 103-9. Examination of the Pāli Buddhistical Annals, Vol. VI, Pt. II, p. 729, J.A.S.B., 1837 (Sept.).

⁶ Rāmāyana (Bombay edition), Chap. 45, verse 9.

heavenly, in fact a veritable svarga'.¹ Viśvāmitra here narrates a long mythological story to show the importance of the locality. He goes on to say that the Ikṣvāku prince then ruling over the country was named Sumati, and adds that, by favour of Ikṣvāku, the father of the eponymous founder of the city and ancestor of the ruling dynasty, all the kings of Vaiśālī (sarve Vaiśālikā nṛpāḥ) were long lived, high souled, possessed of strength and power and highly virtuous.²

From all these mythical stories, it is apparent that the name of the city had something to do with the word viśāla or 'extensive', and from what we read of the description of the ruins that Hsüan Tsang saw in the seventh century A.D., there can be no doubt of its wide extent. The Chinese traveller relates, 'The foundations of the old city Vaiśālī were sixty or seventy li in circuit, and the "palace city" (i.e. the walled part of the city) was four and five li in circuit.' This would mean an area of about twenty miles in circumference for the outer town; and the 'palace city' perhaps represents the earliest of the three cities which, according to Buddhaghosa, were built to accommodate the Licchavis as they rapidly increased in numbers; but its area would not in that case agree with the statement that each of the three walls was at a distance of a gāvuta (gavyuti) or a quarter yojana, that is roughly a league from the other.

Buddhaghosa's description is also supported by the Aṭṭhakathā to the Ekapaṇṇa Jātaka, where we are told, 'At the time of the Buddha, the city of Vesāli was encompassed by three walls at a distance of a gāvuta from one another, and at three places there were gates with watch-towers and buildings.' The three walls are also referred to in the Aṭṭhakathā to the Lomahaṃsa Jātaka.

The Tibetan *Dulva* (iii, f. 80) gives the following description: There were three districts in Vaiśālī. In the first district were seven thousand houses with golden towers, in the middle district were fourteen thousand houses with silver towers, and in the last district were twenty-one thousand houses with copper towers; in these lived the upper, the middle and the lower classes according to their positions.' ⁶

¹ Rāmāyaṇa (Bombay edition), Chap. 45, verses 10 and 11.

² Ibid., Chap. 47, verse 18. Whether nrpāh can here be taken to mean the oligarchy of rājās referred to elsewhere is uncertain.

⁸ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. II, p. 63.

⁴ Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. I, p. 504. 'Vesālinagaram gāvutagāvutantare tīhi pākārehi parikkhittam tīsu thānesu gopuratṭālokayuttam.'

⁵ Ibid., Vol. I, p. 389.

⁶ Rockhill, Life of the Buddha, p. 62.

Hoernle in his English translation of the Jaina work, Uvāsagadasāo, advances the suggestion that the three districts referred to in the Dulva and in the Atthakathā, 'may very well have been Vesāli proper, Kundapura and Vāniyagāma occupying respectively the south-eastern, north-eastern and western portions of the area of the total city. Beyond Kundapura, in a further north-easterly direction lay the suburb (or 'station', sannivesa) of Kollaga which appears to have been principally inhabited by the Kṣatriyas of the Nāya (or Jñātr) clan, to which Mahāvīra himself belonged; for it is described as the Nāya-kula'. He further observes that the phrases used in the $\bar{A}y\bar{a}r\bar{a}nga-s\bar{u}tra$ like 'Uttara-Khattiya-Kuṇḍapura-sannivesa or dahiṇa-māhaṇa-Kuṇḍa-pura-sannivesa', 'do not mean the northern Kṣatriya (resp. Southern Brahmanical) part of the place Kundapura, but the Northern Ksatriya, etc., suburb of Kundapura, i.e. that suburb (sannivesa) of the city of Kundapura, which lay towards the north and was inhabited by the (Naya clan of) Ksatriyas; it was distinguished from the southern suburb of the same city (Kuṇḍapura or Vesālī) which was inhabited by the Brahmins. This interpretation is confirmed by the parallel phrases in Kap. §22 (et passim), Khattiya-Kundagāme Nayare and Māhana-Kundagāme Nayare, which are rightly translated as the Ksatriya (resp. the Brahmanical) part of the town Kundagāma'.2 He also points out that 'the phrase ucca-nīya majjhimāim kulāim, "upper, lower and middle classes", applied to the town of Vāṇiyagāma in sections 77, 78 (of the *Uvāsagadasāo*) curiously agrees with the description of Vesālī given in the Dulva'.3

The Buddha must have paid many visits to the Licchavi capital, and reports of at least two besides that already referred to are preserved in Buddhist books. The earliest of his visits is described at length in the Mahāvastu. We are told there, how the people of Vaiśālī were troubled by a frightful pestilence which was laying their country waste, and how all their efforts to stay the plague proved fruitless. In their distress they sent for various well-known holy men, but these failed to afford them any relief. As a last resort the people of Vaiśālī sent a deputation headed by Tomara, a Licchavi chief, to Rājagrha to bring the Buddha to their city. King Bimbisāra himself secured the Buddha's consent to help the Licchavis, and insisted on accompanying him to the boundaries of his territory.

¹ Hoernle, *Uvāsagadasāo*, Vol. II, translation, p. 4, note 8.

² Ibid., Vol. II, p. 5. ³ Ibid., Vol. II, translation, p. 6. ⁴ Le Mahāvastu, ed. E. Senart, Vol. I, pp. 253ff. See also Buddhaghosa's introduction to commentary on Ratana-sutta.

To impress the Licchavis with an idea of his power and wealth, the king of Magadha had the road from Rajagrha to the Ganges, which formed the boundary between the two dominions, levelled, cleaned, decorated, and sprinkled with flowers; while the smoke of rich incense perfumed its whole length. He himself followed the Buddha, with his whole court and numerous retinue. The Licchavis, both the Abhyantara-Vaiśālakas, those living within the walls of the city, and the Bāhira-Vaiśālakas, the people living in the suburbs and surroundings, came in all their splendour and magnificence, in dazzling garments of all colours. Even the Buddha was impressed by their appearance, and compared them to the Tāvatimsa gods. The Licchavis decorated the road from the Ganges to Vaisālī with a magnificence that far outdid the preparations made by the Magadhan king, and they provided for the comfort of the Buddha and the congregation of monks on a still more lavish scale. As soon as the Buddha crossed over to the northern side of the river and stepped on Licchavi soil, all malign influences that had hung over the country vanished, and the sick and the suffering were restored to health. The Buddha did not wish to live in the city or its suburbs, but he accepted the invitation of Bhagavatī Gośrngī to live in the Mahāvana, the great forest extending from the city far away to the north.

The Licchavis built the Kūtāgārasālā monastery for the Buddha in the forest, and offered it to him and to the Buddhist congregation; and the Buddha permitted the bhikkhus to reside there. One day the Licchavis on coming to the Mahavana learnt that the Buddha had repaired to the Capala-Caitya to spend the day; thereupon they presented it to him and to the congregation of monks. Similarly, finding the Buddha spending the day at the Saptāmra-Caitya, Bahuputra-Caitya, Gautama-Caitya, Kapinahya-Caitya and Markatahrada-tīra-Caitya respectively, the Licchavis made a gift of all these places of worship to him and to the Buddhist Church. Even the courtesan Amrapali made a gift of her extensive mango-grove to the congregation; and similarly Bālikā made over Bālikāchavi,² which is evidently the same as the Bālikārāma of the Pāli Buddhist books.3 On this visit to their city, the Buddha delivered many discourses to the people of Vaiśālī, and established the Buddhist faith on a strong foundation at the capital of the Licchavis.

We read in the *Vinaya* (*Mahāvagga* and *Cullavagga*) and other Pāli texts of the Buddha's visits to the Kuṭāgārasālā and other

¹ Le Mahāvastu, ed. Senart, Vol. I, pp. 295-9.

² Ibid., Vol. I, p. 300.

³ Vinaya Texts, S.B.E., Pt. III, p. 408.

retreats. On one such occasion the Buddha taught his monks many matters connected with the sort of houses they were to build and dwell in; and he also ordered the Samgha to excommunicate Vaddha, a Licchavi, who had brought a false charge against one of the brotherhood; but afterwards relented on Vaddha's making due reparations.1

In accounts in the Buddhist books, whether Pāli or Sanskrit. Vaiśālī is represented as a rich and prosperous town.² For example. in the Lalitavistara we are told that some of the gods of the Tusita heaven, in advancing the claims of Vaisali for the honour of being the Buddha's birthplace, said, 'This great city of Vaiśālī is prosperous and proud, happy and rich with abundant food, charming and delightful, crowded with many and various peoples, adorned with buildings of every description, with storeyed mansions, buildings with towers, and palaces, with noble gateways and charming with beds of flowers in her numerous gardens and groves. This city, resembling the city of the gods, is indeed fit for the birth of the Bodhisattva.' 3

We next come to the accounts of the city left by the Chinese travellers. Fā Hien, who visited Vaiśālī at the beginning of the fifth century A.D., i.e. about a thousand years after the Buddha's time, says,4 'North of the city is a large forest, having in it the double-galleried vihāra where Buddha dwelt, and the tope over half the body of Ananda.' The double-galleried vihāra is evidently the Kūtāgārasālā in the Mahāvana or 'great forest', which stretched right up to the Himalayas as Buddhaghosa explains in his Sumangalavilāsinī to the Mahāli Sutta in the Dīgha Nikāya.⁵ With regard to the Kūtāgārasālā Buddhaghosa says: 'In that forest (i.e. Mahāvana) was established a samghārāma (monastery). A \$\darkappa \bar{a} \sigma \alpha \alp above, it was made into a kūtāgārasālā resembling a chariot of the gods (devavimāna). From it, the whole saṃghārāma is known as Kuṭāgārasālā.' This agrees with Fā-Hien's description of the double-galleried vihāra. The upper storey was evidently built

¹ Cullavagga, Vinaya Texts, Pt. II, S.B.E., pp. 101 et seq. See also Vinaya Texts, S.B.F., Pt. III, pp. 322 and 408; Pt. II, pp. 210-11.

² See, e.g., Mahāvagga, Vinaya Texts, Pt. II, S.B.E., p. 171.

⁸ Lalitavistara, ed. Lefman, Chap. III, p. 21.

⁴ Legge, Fā-Hien, p. 72.

Sumangalavilāsinī, Pt. I (P.T.S.), p. 309.
 Ibid., Pt. I, P.T.S., p. 309. 'Tasmin vanasande sanghārāmam patiṭṭhāpesum. Tattha kannikam yojetvā thambhānam upari Kūṭāgārasālā-samkhepena devavimāna-sadisam pāsādam akamsu. Tam upādāya sakalo pi samghārāmo Kūṭāgārasālā ti paññāyittha.

upon a large number of pillars instead of walls, and on the top there was a $k\bar{u}ta$ or peak, so that there were two galleries, one below and the other above, and from the upper storey rose a pinnacle, as we see in the $vim\bar{a}nas$ or rathas referred to by Buddhaghosa. Hsüan Tsang, who visited the city more than 200 years after Fā-Hien, found this great vihāra in ruins. He adds, 'To the east of the tope of the Jātaka narrative was a wonder-working tope on the old foundations of the "two-storey Preaching Hall", in which Ju-lai delivered the P'u-men-t'o-lo-ni and other sūtras. Close to the remains of the Preaching Hall was the tope which contained the half-body relics of Ānanda.' The story of the parinirvāṇa of Ānanda and the division of the remnants of the body has been told by Fā-Hien, and the same account is also given in the Tibetan works.

Hsüan Tsang's account of the country of which Vaiśālī was the capital agrees pretty well with the tradition of its prosperity preserved in the Buddhist books. The Vaiśālī country is described by the pilgrim as being above five thousand li in circuit, a very fertile region abounding in mangoes, plantains and other fruits. The people were honest, fond of good works, lovers of learning, and both orthodox and heterodox in faith.⁴

In the Tibetan works, a similar account is given of the prosperity and opulence of Vaiśālī, which is invariably described in the *Dulva* as a kind of earthly paradise, with its handsome buildings, its parks and gardens, singing birds and continual festivities. The *Romantic Legend of Śākya Buddha*, translated by Beal from Chinese sources, gives an account similar to that in the *Lalitavistara*.

The identification of Vaiśālī, the capital of the Licchavis, has been much discussed by scholars. General Cunningham identified the present village of Basārh in the Muzafferpur district in Tirhut as marking the spot where Vaiśālī stood in ancient days,⁷ and M. Vivien de Saint Martin agreed with him. Dr. W. Hoey sought, though on very insufficient evidence, to establish the identity of Vaiśālī with a place called Cherānd, situated on the northern bank of the Ganges about 7 miles south-east from Chāprā.⁸ This identification was proved to be untenable by V. A. Smith,⁹ who succeeded

¹ Evidently the Kūtāgāra Hall.

² Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. II, p. 71.
⁸ Legge, Fā-Hien, pp. 75-7.

⁴ Beal, Buddhist Records of the Western World, II, 66.

⁵ Rockhill, Life of the Buddha, p. 63.

⁶ P. 28.

⁷ Arch. S. Report, Vol. I, pp. 55, 56 and Vol. XVI, p. 6.

⁸ J.A.S.B., 1900, Vol. LXIX, Pt. I, pp. 78-80, 83. ⁹ V. A. Smith, J.R.A.S., 1902, p. 267, n. 3.

in confirming Cunningham's identification. The identity of Vaiśālī and Basārh was proved still more decisively by the archæological explorations carried out on the site in 1903-4 by T. Bloch. Bloch excavated a mound called Rājā Viśāl kā garh. Three distinct strata were found, the uppermost belonging to the period of Mahomedan occupation of the place, the second, at a depth of about five feet from the surface, related to the epoch of the Imperial Guptas, and the third, at a still greater depth, belonging to an ancient period of which no definite date could be obtained. The finds in the second stratum, however, were of great value, especially a hoard of 700 clay seals evidently used as attachment to letters or other literary documents.²

The names of certain Gupta kings, queens and princes on some of these seals, coupled with palæographic evidence, clearly demonstrate that they belonged to the fourth and fifth centuries A.D.³ Some of the impressions show that the name Tīrabhukti (the original form of Tirhut) was applied to the province even in these early times, and some show the name of the town itself, Vaiśālī.⁴ These things go to prove the identity of the site with Vaiśālī, and there seems to be no ground to question this conclusion any longer. But it must be noted that the results so far obtained by excavation are very meagre.

Manners and Customs

We have already seen that the Licchavis were included in the great Vajjian confederacy. But sometimes Vajji (Skt. Vṛji) and Licchavi were used indiscriminately as synonyms. At the time the Buddha lived, 'the Vajjis were divided into several clans such as the Licchavis, the Vaidehis, the Tīrabhuktis and so on, and the exact number of those clans would appear to have been eight, as criminals were arraigned before the Aṭṭhakūlakā or eight clans, which would appear to have been a jury composed of one member from each of the separate divisions of the tribe'.⁵

All these Vajjis lived in great amity and concord, and this unity coupled with their martial instincts and the efficiency of their martial institutions made them great and powerful amongst the nations of North-Eastern India. Their sympathy for one another was exemplary. If one Licchavi fell ill, the other Licchavis came to see him. The whole clan would join in any auspicious

¹ Sir John H. Marshall, Arch. Surv. of India, Annual Report, 1903-4, p. 74.

Ibid., p. 74.

Ibid., p. 110.

Cunningham, Ancient Geography of India, p. 447.

⁶ Buddhist Suttas, S.B.E., Vol. XI, p. 3; see also Turnour, Pāli Buddhistical Annals, No. 5, J.A.S.B., Dec. 1838, p. 992.

ceremony performed in the house of one of their number; if any foreigner of rank and power paid a visit to the Licchavi capital, they would all go out in a body to receive him and do him honour.¹

The young Licchavis were handsome in appearance and fond of brilliant colours in their dress and equipages.2 We have already seen how their splendour impressed the Buddha when he first met them. We have a detailed account of the attire of the Licchavi nobles in the Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta, which describes how the Licchavi nobles went out for the last time to meet the Buddha. Apparently the Licchavis suited the colour of their clothes and ornaments to the tint of their complexions, and dressed themselves in dark blue ($n\bar{\imath}la$), yellow ($p\bar{\imath}ta$), red (lohita), or white ($od\bar{a}ta$) accordingly.³ Exactly the same description of the colours favoured by the Licehavis is given in the Anguttara Nikāya,4 which shows that they wore these colours not only on festive occasions but in their ordinary daily life also. Once while the Buddha was staying at the Kūtāgāraśālā in the Mahāvana, five hundred of the Licchavis were seated around him. Some of them were $n\bar{\imath}la$ or blue all over in clothes and ornaments, and similarly others were yellow, red or white. We may compare these descriptions with the more detailed account in the Mahāvastu of the colours favoured by the Licchavis: 'There are Licchavis with blue horses, blue chariots, blue reins and whips, blue sticks, blue clothes, blue ornaments, blue turbans, blue umbrellas and with blue swords, blue jewels, blue footwears and blue everything befitting their youth.' In the same terms the Mahāvastu speaks of the Licchavis decked all in vellow (bīta) and in light red, the colour of the Bengal mādār (mañjiṣṭha), in red (lohita), in white (śveta), in green (harita), and some in variegated colours (vvāvukta).6

Perhaps the Licchavis were divided into separate septs as Senart suggested, distinguished by the colour worn by each; otherwise it is difficult to explain why the same colours should be preferred for the trappings of the horses and decorations of their carriages, as well as the articles of dress adorning their own persons. There was moreover a profusion of gold and jewels in everything in their equipage—carriages drawn by horses, gold-bedecked elephants, palanquins of gold set with all kinds of precious stones.

Sumangalavilāsinī (P.T.S.), II, pp. 517-8.
 Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. II, p. 79.

⁸ Dīgha Nikāya, Vol. II, p. 96; Buddhist Suttas, S.B.E., Vol. XI, p. 31.

⁴ Anguttara Nikāya, P.T.S., Pt. III, p. 239.

⁵ Mahāvastu, Vol. I, p. 259.

⁶ We have here followed the interpretation, suggested by Senart, of Vyāyukta (Le Mahāvāstu, note, p. 574); this meaning, however, is very doubtful.

All this bespeaks a prosperous people, and it might be expected that they would be given to luxury and indolence. But this was not their character at the time when the Buddha lived and preached among them. The Samyutta Nikāya preserves this saying, which is attributed to the Buddha: 'Look ye Bhikkhus here, how these Licchavis live sleeping with logs of wood as pillows, strenuous and diligent (appamattā), zealous and active (ātāpino) in archery. Ajātasattu Vedehiputto, the Magadhan king, can find no defect in them, nor can he discover any cause of action (against them). Should the Licchavis, O Bhikkhus, in the time to come, be very delicate, tender and soft in their arms and legs, should they sleep in ease and comfort on cushions of the finest cotton until the sun is up in the heavens, then the Magadhan king, Ajātasattu Vedehiputto, will find defects and will discover cause of action.' This testimony of the Buddha goes to show that the Licchavis were hardy and active, ardent and strenuous in their military training.

The Licchavis used to kill animals on the 8th, 14th and 15th

day of the lunar months and eat their flesh.2

They were fond of manly pastimes such as elephant training and hunting. Among the Psalms of the Brethren (Theragatha), we find one composed by Vajjiputtaka, the son of a Licchavirājā at Vaisālī, who, in his early life, was engaged in training elephants.3 The Anguttara Nikāya narrates how a large number of Licchavi youths, armed with bows, ready with strings, set and surrounded by a pack of hounds, were roving about in the Mahāvana, but finding the Buddha seated at the foot of a tree in the forest, threw away their bows and arrows and sending away the pack of hounds sat by the Great Teacher, subdued by his presence. A Licchavi of advanced years, named Mahānāma, who came to pay his respects to the Buddha, expressed his great wonder at the sight of the Licchavi youths, full of life and vivacity, notorious for their insolent and wanton conduct in the city, thus sitting silent and demure, in an attitude of reverence before the Great Teacher. 'The Licchavi youths, O Lord!' he goes on, 'are rude and rough and whatever presents are sent to the families, sugarcane or plums, cakes, sweetmeats or preparations of sugar, these they plunder and eat up, throw dust at the ladies of respectable families and girls of good families; such young men are now all silent and demure, are doing obeisance with joined palms to yourself, O Lord.' 4

¹ Samyutta Nikāya (P.T.S.), Pt. II, pp. 267-8.

² Divyāvadāna (Čowell and Neil), p. 136.

³ Psalms of the Brethren, Mrs. Rhys Davids, p. 106; Theragāthā, V, 119. ⁴ Anguttara Nikāya (P.T.S.), Pt. III, p. 76.

'In the Buddha's time, the young Licchavis of the City', says Watters, 'were a free, wild, set, very handsome and full of life, and Buddha compared them to the gods in Indra's heaven. dressed well, were good archers, and drove fast carriages, but they were wanton, insolent and utterly irreligious.' 1 This is an exaggeration and is probably based on the Chinese translations of such passages as the one in the Lalitavistara, where some of the Tusita gods point out the defects in the character of the Vaisalians when their city was recommended by others among them as a suitable place of birth for the Bodhisattva.2 Whatever might have been the opinions of these 'sons of heaven' before the birth of the Buddha, they must later have changed their opinions about the people of Vaiśālī, who showed such remarkable veneration towards the Buddha and received such marked favour from him. however, assume that the Licchavis were rather independent in character and would not easily accept a subordinate position to any one, whether in politics, religion, or ordinary daily life.

Then again the statement that the Licchavis did not respect their elders or were irreligious, is in direct contradiction to what the Buddha said about their regard for elders to Vassakāra, the

Magadhan minister.3

The Licchavi youths went to distant countries for their education. We read of a Licchavi named Mahāli who went to Taxila to learn śilpa or arts. It is said that he in his turn trained as many as 500 Licchavis who also, when educated, took up the same task and in this way education spread far and wide among the Licchavis.⁴

Nor were the fine arts neglected. Artisans such as tailors, goldsmiths and jewellers must have been much in demand in the city of Vaiśālī to furnish the gay robes of the 'seven thousand seven hundred and seven' rājās or nobles. The art of architecture also was much developed in Vaiśālī; the magnificent palaces of the Licchavis are spoken of in the Lalitavistara. They were equally enthusiastic in the building of temples, shrines, and monasteries for the Bhikkhus; and we are told that the Bhikkhus themselves superintended the construction of these buildings for the Order. The Licchavis of Vaiśālī built many caityas or shrines inside and outside their great city, and we have already seen with what great

¹ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, Vol. II, p. 79.

² Lalitavistara, ed. S. Lefmann, Vol. I, p. 21. ³ Dialogues of the Buddha, Pt. II, p. 80.

Fausböll, Dhammapada (old ed.), p. 211.
Chap. 3, p. 23 (Bibl. Indica Series).

liberality they gave the best among them to the Buddha and the Buddhist Church. That these caityas were beautiful and fine buildings, where people might wish to dwell indefinitely, was the expressed opinion of the Buddha, as we see from a passage in the Dīgha Nikāva.¹

About the marriage rites of the Licchavis, it is said in the Tibetan books that there were rules restricting the marriage of all girls born in Vaiśālī to that city alone. They state, 'The people of Vaisali had made a law that a daughter born in the first district could marry only in the first district, not in the second or third; that one born in the middle district could marry only in the first and second; but that one born in the last district could marry in any of the three; moreover, that no marriage was to be contracted outside Vaiśālī.' 2 Certain passages in the Bhikkhunī Vibhanga Sanghādidesa indicate that a Licchavi could ask the Licchavigana or corporation of Licchavis to select a suitable bride for him, or to try a case of adultery. The punishment for a woman who broke her marriage vow was very severe; the husband could even kill her with impunity. But an adulterous woman could save herself from punishment by entering the congregation of nuns.4 The Licchavis appear to have had a high idea of female chastity; violation of chastity was a serious offence amongst them. The Buddha says that 'no women or girls belonging to their clans are detained among them by force or abduction . The Petavatthu Atthakathā gives the story of a Licchavi rājā named Ambasakkhara who was enamoured of a married woman, whose husband he engaged as an officer under him; but he was foiled in his attempts to gain her love.6

The Licchavis observed various festivals, of which the Sabbarattivāro or Sabbaratticāro was the most important. At this festival, songs were sung, and drums and other musical instruments were used.7 When a festival took place at Vaiśālī, all the people used to enjoy it, and there were dancing, singing and recitations.8

¹ Buddhist Suttas, S.B.E., Vol. XI, p. 58.

² Rockhill, Life of the Buddha, p. 62.

³ Bhikkhunī Vibhanga Sanghādidesa, II, Vinava Pitaka, ed. H. Oldenberg, Vol. IV, pp. 225-6.

⁴ Ibid., p. 225.

Buddhist Suttas, S.B.E., Vol. XI, pp. 3-4.
 Petavatthu Atthakathā, Sinhalese edition, Simon Hewavitarana's Bequest Series, No. 1, pp. 154-6; and see B. C. Law, The Buddhist Conception of Spirits. 2nd Ed., pp. 73-5.

⁷ Samyutta Nikāya, Vol. I, pp. 201-2.

⁸ Theragāthā Commentary, v. 62; Psalms of the Brethren, p. 63.

Views and Practices

All our information about the views and practices of the Licchavis is derived from Buddhist books, and to a smaller extent from Jaina works. From these we learn that the Licchavis, though vigorous, martial, and highly prosperous, were at the same time of a strongly religious bent of mind. Both Jainism and Buddhism found many followers among them. Even before the advent of the two new forms of religion, the Licchavis, or to call them by their wider designation, the Vajjis, appear to have been imbued with a strong religious spirit. The Vajjis appear to have had numerous shrines in their town as well as in the country. Even after Jainism and Buddhism had obtained a strong hold on the Licchavis of Vaiśālī, the great body of the people of the Vajji country as well as of the capital remained staunch followers of their ancient faith, the principal feature of which was Caitya worship, although they had due respect for the Jaina or Buddhist sages who wandered over their country preaching the message delivered by their respective teachers. The Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta tells us what the Buddha told Vassakāra, the prime minister (mahāmātra) of Magadha, when the latter was sent by Ajātaśatru to learn from the Buddha what he would predict with regard to the king's daring plan of exterminating the Vajjis. The Buddha said: 'So long as the Vajjians honour and esteem and revere and respect and support the Vajjian shrines in town or country, and allow not the proper offerings and rites, as formerly given and performed, to fall into desuetude, so long as the rightful protection, defence and support shall be fully provided for the Arahants among them so long may the Vajjians be expected not to decline but to prosper. This was said by the Buddha on the eve of his last departure for Vaiśālī. Buddhaghosa in his commentary, the Sumangalavilāsinī, also informs us that the Licchavis observed their old religious rites.3 We must here bear in mind the fact that Buddhism at the early stage of which we are speaking was a form of faith for ascetics only, not a religious creed for all people. The Buddhists at this period formed only one of the numerous ascetic sects of Northern India; thus there was nothing unusual in the fact that many of the

¹ The word in the text is 'Cetiyāni'. T. W. Rhys Davids' translation seems to be too exclusive for, as Kern points out, the name Cetiya was applied not only to shrines, but also to sacred trees, memorial stones, holy spots, images, religious inscriptions (Manual of Indian Buddhism, p. 91. See also B. C. Law, Geography of Early Buddhism, pp. 79-80).

² T. W. and C. A. F. Rhys Davids, *Dialogues of the Buddha*, Pt. II, p. 80. ³ Sumangalavilāsinī (P.T.S.), II, pp. 517-8,

Licchavis who were householders and had not accepted the life of Bhikkhus should remain firm followers of their former faith.

From the meagre mention of the Caityas of the Licchavis in the Buddhist books, it is not easy to determine what the principal objects of their worship were; but there is nothing to show that the religious beliefs of the Licchavis were in any way different from the form of faith which obtained in other parts of Northern India. The Vedic religion was still in full vigour in N.E. India, as the references to Vedic sacrifices in the Buddhist books show. We should bear in mind that the country of the Vajjis was the sacred land of Videha, where the great Samrāt Janaka had exercised his sway, and where Yājñavalkya preached the White Yajurveda.

The Caityas mentioned in the Mahāvastu are the Cāpāla, Saptāmraka, Bahuputra, Gautama, Kapinahya, and Markatahradatīra. In the *Mahābarinibbāna Suttanta*, we find the following names of Caityas as mentioned by the Buddha: Gotamaka (= Gautama), Sattambaka (= Saptāmraka), Bahuputtaka (= Bahuputra or Bahuputraka), Sārandada, and Cāpāla. The Pātika Suttanta seems to indicate that Vaisālī was bounded by four shrines: Udena (Udayana) on the east, Gotamaka on the south, Sattamba on the west, and Bahuputta on the north.1 A passage in the *Divyāvadāna* also gives a list of the *Caityas* in almost the same words as the Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta; there also the Buddha is represented as speaking of the beauties of the Caityas called Cāpāla, Saptāmraka, Bahupatraka and Gautama-nyagrodha.² Bahupatraka is evidently the same as the Bahuputraka of the other texts. Buddhaghosa in his commentary on the Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta explains cetivāni in the text as Yakkha-cetivāni, and regarding the Sarandada-caitya where the Buddha preached, he says: 'This was a Vihāra erected on the site of a former shrine of the Yakkha (tree deity) Sārandada.'3 Hence it is reasonable to assume that the Yakkhas were worshipped in some of the Caityas. The Buddhist books show further that the Vedic gods, Indra and Prajāpati or Brahmā,4 were popular deities in the regions where the Buddha preached; while Kautilya's Arthaśāstra 5 speaks of many gods popularly worshipped, besides the Vedic divinities. Some scholars are of opinion that the *Caityas* were 'shrines of pre-Buddhistic

¹ Dialogues of the Buddha, Pt. III, p. 14.

² Divyāvadāna, p. 201.

³ Dialogues of the Buddha, Pt. II, p. 80, notes 2 and 3.

⁴ For Brahmā, see S.N., 122 seq.; Samy., VI, 1, 1-3, 10, etc.; M.P.S., VI, 15, etc.

⁵ Ed. R. Shāma Shāstrī, 2nd Ed., p. 244.

worship' and that 'they were probably trees and barrows.' Some of the *Caityas*, as their names suggest, might have been named after the trees which marked the spots, but it would be going too far to imagine merely from the name that these shrines consisted of trees and nothing else.

As we have seen, Mahāvīra, the 24th Tirthankara of the Jains, was a citizen of Vaiśālī. Even before his advent, the faith of which he was the last exponent seems to have been prevalent in Vaiśālī and the surrounding country, in some earlier form. It appears from the Jaina accounts that the religion as fixed and established by Pārśvanātha, the 23rd Tīrthankara, was followed by some at least of the Ksatriya peoples of N.E. India, especially amongst the residents of Vaisali. We read in the Ayaranga-sutra that Mahāvīra's parents were 'worshippers of Pārśva and followers of the Śramanas'.2 Similar accounts are given in other Jaina works of the prevalence in the country of a faith which was afterwards developed by Mahāvīra. Śramaṇas or wandering ascetics had been in existence ever since the time of the earlier Upanisads, and evidently the Sramanas that were followed by the parents of Mahāvīra belonged to one of the numerous sects or classes of Indian ascetics. After Mahāvīra's time, the number of his followers among the Licchavis appears to have been large, even including some men of the highest position in Vaiśālī, as is seen from the Buddhist books. In the Mahāvagga we read that Sīha, a general-in-chief of the Licchavis, was a disciple of Nigantha Nataputta (= Mahavīra). When the Buddha visited Vaiśālī, Sīha wished to see him, having heard reports of his greatness; but Mahāvīra dissuaded him, pointing out the defects in the doctrines preached by the Buddha. Siha's enthusiasm for the Buddha abated for the time, but was again roused by the discussions of the other Licchavis, so that he finally did pay a visit to the Buddha, who gave him a long discourse on the Buddhist doctrine. Sīha was converted to the Buddhist faith. One day he invited the Buddha and the Bhikkhus to take their meal at his house, and procured meat at the market to feed them. But the Jains spread a false report that Siha had killed an ox and made a meal for the 'Samana Gotama', and that the Samana Gotama was knowingly eating the meat of an animal killed for this very

¹ Prof. and Mrs. Rhys Davids, Dialogues of the Buddha, Pt. II, p. 110, f.n. 2. See also R. P. Chanda's Mediaeval Sculpture in Eastern India, Cal. Univ. Journal (Arts), Vol. III.

² Jaina Sūtras, Pt. I, Āyārānga-sūtra, trsl. H. Jacobi, S.B.E., Vol. XXII,

³ See Vinaya Texts, trsl. Rhys Davids and Oldenberg, S.B.E., Vol. XVII, pp. 108ff.

purpose, and was therefore responsible for the killing of the animal.¹ This false report circulated by them only made Sīha firmer in his zeal for his new faith, but the story shows that the number of the Nigaṇṭhas at Vaiśālī was sufficiently large to defy the influence of such an important man as Sīha, and this is also confirmed by the story of Saccaka, a Nigaṇṭha, who had the hardihood to challenge the Buddha himself to a discussion on philosophical tenets before an assemblage of five hundred Licchavis.

We read in the Majjhima Nikāya² that the Niganthaputta Saccaka told the Licchavis of his intention to defeat the Samana Gotama' in argument, and induced 500 of them to go with him to the Mahavana to listen to the discussion. He approached the place where the Bhikkhus were walking up and down and told them, 'We are anxious to see Gotama, the Blessed One'. Buddha was seated to spend the day in meditation at the foot of a tree in the Mahāvana. Saccaka with a large number of Licchavis went up to him; then arguments relating to the samghas and ganas, and some knotty points of Buddhist psychology and metaphysics were started between Saccaka and the Buddha. Saccaka, being defeated, invited the Buddha to dinner. The Licchavis were informed of this, and asked to bring whatever they liked to the dinner, which would be held on the following day. At the break of day, the Licchavis brought five hundred dishes for the Buddha. The Niganthaputta and the Licchavis became greatly devoted to the Buddha.

The Buddha paid at least three visits, but probably many more, to Vaiśālī; and the Pāli works have recorded many occasions similar to those mentioned above, on which the Licchavis sought his aid for the solution of numerous problems of religion and dogma.

Once when the Buddha was staying in the Kūṭāgārasālā in the Mahāvana, a Licchavi named Bhaddiya paid a visit to him and asked him whether it was true that he employed magic spells to attract converts. Thereupon the Buddha explained his doctrine of 'kusala and akusala-dhamma' saying that his teaching did indeed rest on fact. Bhaddiya, delighted with the exposition, forthwith declared himself a follower of the Buddha.

On another occasion we find that when the Buddha was at Vaiśālī, two Licchavis, named Sāļho and Abhaya, approached him, and asked his opinion as to the relative merits of 'purity of conduct' (sīla) and 'the practice of self-mortification' (tapa).

¹ Vinaya Texts, S.B.E., Vol. XVII, p. 116.

² Majjhima Nikāya, Vol. I, pp. 227-37 (Cūļasaccaka Sutta).

³ Anguttara Nikāya (P.T.S.), Vol. II, pp. 190-94. 4 Ibid., Vol. II, pp. 200-2.

Another time a Licchavi minister (mahāmātra) named Nandaka approached the place where the Buddha was, and the Buddha explained to him the four Dhammas.¹ On another occasion when the Buddha was at Vaiśālī, there were 500 Licchavis assembled at the Sārandada-cetiya. They had a discussion about the five kinds of 'rare gems' (elephant, horse, jewel, woman, and house-holder), and asked the Buddha's opinion, whereupon he solved the problem in an unexpected way.²

The Anguttara Nikāya tells of a large number of distinguished Licchavis who went to see the Buddha when he was at Vaiśālī; and also narrates how on another occasion, when the Buddha was at Vaiśālī, he was worshipped by 500 Licchavis arrayed in various

coloured garments, ornaments and trappings.3

A certain Añjana-Vaniya was born at Vaiśālī in the family of a rājā. During his adolescence, the three-fold panic of drought, sickness and non-human foes afflicted the Vajjian territory. Afterwards, the Buddha put a stop to the panic and addressed a great gathering. Hearing his discourse, the prince attained faith, left the world, and eventually became an Arahat.⁴ Another son of a rājā who was converted by the Buddha was Vajjiputta, 'the son of the Vajjis'.⁵

In the Saṃyutta Nikāya ⁶ we read of Mahāli, a Licchavi, who went to the Buddha and told him that Puraṇa Kassapa was of opinion that beings suffered or were purified without cause. The Buddha refuted this theory. The Aṅguttara Nikāya ⁷ also speaks of a Licchavi named Mahāli, at whose request the Buddha expounded the causes of merit and demerit.⁸

The Buddha exercised a remarkable influence even over the fiercest of the Licchavis. For instance, it was said of a certain Licchavi prince that he was so very fierce, cruel, passionate and vindictive that none dared to utter more than two or three words in his presence. At last his parents resolved to bring him to the Buddha for correction. Accordingly he was brought before the Buddha, who painted a convincing picture of the results of cruelty

¹ Samyutta Nikāya (P.T.S.), Vol. V, pp. 389-90.

² Anguttara Nikāya, Vol. III, pp. 167-8.

³ Ibid., Vol. V, p. 133.

⁴ Theragatha, V, 55 and comm.; Psalms of the Brethren (P.T.S.), p. 56.

⁵ Ibid., V, 119 and comm.; ibid., p. 106.

⁶ Pt. III, pp. 68–70. ⁷ Vol. V, pp. 86-7.

⁸ For other discussions between the Licchavis and the Buddha or his chief disciples, see Anguttara Nikāya (P.T.S.), I, pp. 220-22; II, pp. 190-94, 200-02; Saṃyutta Nikāya (P.T.S.), Vol. IV, pp. 261-2; Vol. V, pp. 163-5.

and wickedness. After this exhortation, the prince's heart miraculously became filled with love and kindness.¹

Among the Licchavi women who were converted by the Buddha,

we read of Sīhā, Jentī, Vāseṭṭhī, and Ambapālī.

Sīhā, a niece of the Licchavi general Sīha, was born at Vaiśālī at the time of Gotama Buddha. When she attained years of discretion, one day she heard the Master preaching. She became a believer, obtained the consent of her parents to enter the Order, and eventually became an Arahat.²

The case of Jentī or Jentā was similar. She was born in a princely family of the Licchavis at Vaiśālī, and won Arahatship after hearing the Dhamma preached by the Buddha.⁸ Another Licchavi woman, Vāsiṭṭhī, was born in a clansman's family at Vaiśālī. Her parents gave her in marriage to a clansman's son of equal position. She had a son. When the child was able to run about, he died. Overwhelmed with grief, Vāsiṭṭhī came to Mithilā, and there she saw the Buddha. At the sight of the Buddha she regained her normal mind; and he taught her the outlines of the Dhamma, whereupon she soon attained Arahatship.⁴

We have read of the courtesan Amrapālī, who gave a vihāra to the Buddha. For further details of her life, see *Therīgāthā*, V, 252ff. (*Psalms of the Sisters*, pp. 120-1, 125).

Government and Administration of Justice

The Licchavis formed a republic in the sense that there was no hereditary monarch, the power of the State being vested in the assembly of citizens. It does not appear to have been a completely democratic republic, but an oligarchy, citizenship being confined to members of the confederate clans. There is ample evidence to show that in ancient times this form of government, as described in the Buddhist books, was much more in vogue than we are led to imagine from later literature.

The Licchavis formed what was called a saṃgha or gaṇa, that is, an organised corporation. One of the Buddhist canonical books, the Majjhima Nikāya,⁵ speaks of the Vajjis and the Mallas as forming saṃghas and gaṇas, i.e. clans governed by an organised corporation and not by an individual sovereign. The Mahāvastu says that when plague raged in Vaiśālī, a Licchavi named Tomara

¹ Ekapanna Jātaka, Fausböll, Jātaka, Vol. I, pp. 504ff.

² Therigāthā, V, 77ff.; Psalms of the Sisters, pp. 53-4.

³ Ibid., V, 21 and 22; Psalms of the Sisters, pp. 23-4.

⁴ Ibid., V, 133ff.; ibid., pp. 79-80.

⁵ P.T.S., Vol. I, p. 231.

was elected by the gana to appeal to the Buddha and bring him

to the city.

Kautilya says¹ that the Licchavis and various other tribes were 'rāja-śabda-upajīvinaḥ'. This apparently means that among these peoples each citizen had the right to call himself a raja, 'king', i.e. a dignitary who did not owe allegiance or pay revenue to any one else. Each citizen not merely looked upon himself as a raja, but considered that his title should be recognised not only by his fellow clansmen but also by the other people of India. This is corroborated by the description of the Licchavis given in the Lalitavistara, which says that at Vaiśālī there was no respect for age, nor for position, whether high or middle or low, each one thinking that he was a rājā.2 Kauṭilya's account shows that this designation of each individual clansman was not confined to the Licchavis, but was shared by them with many other warrior peoples of Northern India. Savaraswāmī in his commentary on the Pūrvamīmāmsā Sūtra, Book II, says that the word rajā' is a synonym for Ksatriya, and states that even in his time the word was used by the Andhras to designate a Ksatriya. On his authority, it can be said that the word 'rājā' in early times designated a member of the Ksatriya caste, and subsequently acquired the specialised meaning of 'king'.

In practice the rank of $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ must have been restricted to a comparatively small section of the community, because we learn from the Ekapanna Jātaka that besides the rājās, there were the uparājās, senāpatis, etc. What the real number of de facto rājās was, we do not know. The Mahāvastu⁸ speaks of the twice 84,000 Licchavi rājās residing within the city of Vaisālī. The Pāli commentaries, e.g. the preambles to the Cullakālinga Jātaka and the Ekapanna Jātaka 5 speak of seven thousand seven hundred and seven rājās of Vaiśālī. The Kalpasūtra speaks of only nine (Jaina Sūtras, Pt. I, S.B.E., Vol. XXII, p. 266).

Kautilya 6 observes that all these samphas by virtue of their being united in such corporations, were unconquerable by others. He further observes that for a king, a corporation was the best and most helpful of all allies, because of the power derived from their union which made them invincible. When Ajātaśatru sent his prime minister (mahāmātra) to ascertain the views of the Buddha

See Arthaśāstra, trsl. R. Shāma Shāstrī, p. 455.
 Ekaika eva manyate aham rājā, aham rājeti.' Lalitavistara, ed. Lefmann, Vol. I, p. 21; Bibl. Indica Series, Chap. III, 23.

⁸ Vol. I, p. 271. ⁵ Ibid., Vol. I, p. 504.

⁴ Fausböll, Jātaka, Vol. III, p. 1. 6 Arthaśāstra (2nd Ed.), p. 378.

with regard to his proposed extermination of the Vrjis, the Buddha said to Ānanda, 'So long, Ānanda, as the Vajjians hold these full and frequent public assemblies; so long may they be expected not to decline but to prosper'.

The public hall where the Licchavis used to hold their meetings was called the Santhāgāra, and there they discussed both religion and politics. We have seen in the story of the conversion of Siha that the Licchavis met at the Santhāgāra to discuss the teaching of the Buddha. The procedure that was followed in these assemblies may be gathered, as D. R. Bhandarkar² has pointed out, from an account of the procedure followed at a ceremony of ordination in the sampha of the Buddhist Bhikkhus. no doubt that in organising the Buddhist samgha, the Buddha took as his model the political sanghas of N.E. India, especially that of the Licchavis whose corporation, as we have seen, he esteemed very highly. Fortunately for us, the rules of procedure followed in the Buddhist community or samgha have been preserved in the description of the upasampada or ordination ceremony in the Pātimokkha section of the Vinaya Pitaka, and from this description we can form an idea of the procedure followed in the political samgha of the Licchavis. First of all, an officer called the Asanapaññāpaka (regulator of seats) was elected, whose function seems to have been to seat the members of the congregation in order of seniority.3 As in the Buddhist congregation, so among the Licchavis, the elders of the clans were highly respected, as we see from the Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta.4

The form of moving a Resolution in the council thus assembled and seated may be gathered from the full description of procedure in the Buddhist saṃgha, for which see Rhys Davids and Oldenberg,

Vinaya Texts, Pt. I, pp. 169-70.

As might be expected in such an assembly, there were often violent disputes and quarrels with regard to controversial topics. In such cases, the disputes were settled by the votes of the majority and this voting was by ballot; voting tickets or salākās were served out to the voters, and an officer of approved honesty and impartiality was elected to collect these tickets or voting papers.⁵ The appointment of this officer, who was called the Salākā-gāhāpaka, was also made by the whole assembly.

¹ Buddhist Suttas, S.B.E., Vol. XI, p. 3.

² Carmichael Lectures, 1918, p. 181.

⁸ Vinaya Texts, S.B.E., Vol. XX, p. 408, f.n.

⁴ Buddhist Suttas, S.B.E., Vol. XI, p. 3.

⁵ Cullavagga, S.B.E., Vol. XX; Vinaya Texts, Pt. III, p. 25.

There was also a provision for taking the votes of absent members. The $Mah\bar{a}vagga^1$ mentions an example of a declaration of the consent of an absent member (of the congregation of monks) to an official Act. Such a declaration was called Chanda.

A quorum was required, and difficulty was often experienced in securing the right number, so that the Buddha exhorted the Bhikkhus to help to complete the quorum.² There are other detailed rules in the *Vinaya Piṭaka* for the regulation of the assembly. This elaboration of the procedure, as well as the use of technical terms for each detail, shows that the organisation of these popular assemblies had already been highly developed among the political saṃghas like that of the Licchavis before the Buddha adopted them for the regulation of his religious saṃgha or congregation.³

The Tibetan works mention a Nāyaka who was the chief magistrate of the Licchavis and 'was elected by the people or rather by the ruling clans of Licchavis'. We do not know exactly what his functions were; perhaps he was an executive officer for carrying

out the decisions of the assembly.

There does not appear to have been any outstanding figure among the Licchavis, comparable to Suddhodana among the Śākyas. The preamble to the Ekapanna Jātaka ⁵ relates that of the Rājās who lived in Vaiśālī permanently exercising the rights of sovereignty, there were seven thousand, seven hundred and seven, and there were quite as many Uparājās (subordinate officials), Senāpatis (generals), and Bhāndāgārikas (treasurers). A passage in the preamble to the Cullakālinga Jātaka ⁶ also mentions seven thousand, seven hundred and seven Licchavi rājās, who lived at Vaiśālī. The number seven thousand, seven hundred and seven cannot be the number of all the Licchavis living in the town of Vaiśālī; in fact we are told in the Mahāvastu that the Licchavis, who went out of Vaiśālī to meet the Buddha on his first visit to that city, numbered as many as twice eighty-four thousand, which was not an incredible number for such an extensive city as Vaiśālī. But 7,707 is evidently an artificially concocted number, seven being used from the idea that it had some magic potency. It is significant

¹ Mahāvagga, S.B.E., Vol. XIII, p. 277.

² Ibid., pp. 307-9.

³ For the democratic organisation of the Licchavis, see D. R. Bhandarkar, Carmichael Lectures, 1918, pp. 179-84.

⁴ Rockhill, Life of the Buddha, p. 62.

⁵ Fausböll, Jātaka, Vol. I, p. 504: 'Niccakālam rajjam kāretvā vasantānam yeva rājūnam sattasahassāni satta ca rājāno honti, tattakā yeva uparājāno, tattakā senāpatino, tattakā bhandāgārikā.'

⁶ Ibid., Vol. III, p. 1.

that none of the canonical texts themselves gives this number, which occurs only in a later commentary, the *Nidānakathā* of the Jātakas.

Bhandarkar says that an $Upar\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ or Viceroy, a $Sen\bar{a}pati$ or general, and a $Bh\bar{a}nd\bar{a}g\bar{a}rika$ or treasurer formed the private staff of every Licchavi $R\bar{a}j\bar{a}$. He adds that each $R\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ had personal property of his own which was managed by himself with the help of these three officers. This seems to be likely, because the existence of a $Bh\bar{a}nd\bar{a}g\bar{a}rika$ attached to each $R\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ necessarily implies that each $R\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ had his own separate $Bh\bar{a}nd\bar{a}g\bar{a}ra$ or treasury.

There must have been officers who recorded the decisions of the Council. A passage in the *Mahāgovinda Suttanta* of the *Dīgha Nikāya* seems to justify this conclusion. In describing a meeting of the thirty-three gods in the Tāvatiṃsa heaven, it is said that after the deliberations were over, four great kings recorded the conclusions arrived at, and on this passage the translators observe, 'This sounds very much as if the Four Great Kings were looked upon as Recorders of what had been said. They kept the minutes of the meeting. If so (the gods being made in the image of men), there must have been such Recorders at the meetings in the Mote-Halls of the clans.' ¹

A passage in the preamble to the *Bhaddasāla Jātaka* mentions a tank, the water of which was used at the ceremony of *abhiṣeka* or coronation of the *kulas* or families of the *gaṇa rājās* of Vaiśālī.² This may refer to the ceremony performed when a Licchavi rājā was elected to a seat in the assembly of the State, or it may denote that the ceremony of coronation was performed when a young Licchavi *kumāra* (prince) succeeded to the title and position of his father.

The Atthakathā on the Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta gives an account of the judicial procedure among the Licchavis. When a person who had committed an offence appeared before the Vajjian rājās, they surrendered him to the Viniccaya-Mahāmāttas, i.e. officers whose business it was to make enquiries and examine the accused with a view to ascertaining whether he was innocent or guilty. If they found the man innocent, they released him; but if they considered him guilty, they made him over to the Vohārikas, i.e. persons learned in law and custom. These could discharge

3 Sumangalavilāsinī, II, 519 (P.T.S.).

¹ Dialogues of the Buddha, Pt. II, p. 263.

² Fausböll, Jātaka, Vol. IV, p. 148: 'Vesālīnagare gaņarājakulānam abhiseka-mangalapokkharanīm,...' See also D. R. Bhandarkar, Carmichael Lectures, 1918, pp. 150-1.

him if they found him innocent; if they held him guilty, they transferred him to certain officers called $Suttadh\bar{a}ras$, that is, officials who kept up the $s\bar{u}tra$ (sutta) or thread of (ancient) law and custom. They in their turn made further investigation, and if satisfied that the accused was innocent, they discharged him. If, however, they considered him guilty, he was made over to the $Atthak\bar{u}lak\bar{a}^1$ (lit. 'the eight castes or tribes') which was evidently a judicial institution composed of judges representing the eight $k\bar{u}las$ or tribes of the confederacy.

The $Atthak\bar{u}lak\bar{a}$, if satisfied of the guilt of the accused, made him over to the $Sen\bar{a}pati$ or commander of the army, who delivered him over to the $Upar\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ or sub-king, and the latter in his turn handed him over to the $R\bar{a}j\bar{a}$. The $R\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ released the accused if he was innocent; if he was found guilty, the $R\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ referred to the Pavemipotthaka, that is, the pustaka or book recording the law and precedents, and prescribing the punishment for each particular offence. The $R\bar{a}j\bar{a}$, having measured the culprit's offence by means of that standard, used to inflict a proper sentence.

Political History

It is from the Buddhist literature that we first realise the importance of the Licchavis. In the Brāhmaṇa literature, though there is repeated mention of Videha, which in the Buddha's time joined with the Licchavis and formed a confederation, there is no mention of the Licchavis. It is remarkable that while the Mallas, their immediate neighbours, are mentioned in the Mahābhārata, the Licchavis are not found among the peoples that were encountered by the Pāṇḍava brothers in their peregrinations, or on their mission of conquest. In the sixth century B.C., however, we find them in the Jaina and Buddhist books as a powerful people in the enjoyment of great prosperity and of a high social status among the ruling races of Eastern India, and, as we have seen, they had already evolved a system of government and polity bearing no small

¹ The Hon. G. Turnour says that no satisfactory explanation can be obtained as to the nature of the office held by these functionaries. It is inferred to be a judicial institution composed of judges from all the eight castes.

² It seems that the ' $R\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ ' who was the highest authority in the administration of criminal justice was different from the ordinary $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}s$ who constituted the popular assembly. He was perhaps the senior amongst the $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}s$, or was one elected from time to time to administer criminal justice.

⁸ G. Turnour, An Examination of the Pāli Buddhistical Annals, J.A.S.B., December, 1838, pp. 993-4, f.n.

resemblance to some of the democracies 1 of the western world. It must have taken a long time to develop such institutions. we must not imagine that the system was a creation of the Licchavis; for it seems that the samgha form of government was the normal form in ancient India even among the peoples that had a king at their head. The earliest Indian tradition of a king is that of a person elected by the people and ruling for the good of the people.2 The procedure of conducting the deliberations of an assembly must have been developing from the earliest Vedic times, as the samiti and the parisad were well-known institutions in the Reveda. The Licchavis must have modelled their procedure on that which was already in vogue among the Indian Arvans, allowing a century for the evolution of the particular form of government of the Licchavis from the already existing system. Their emergence from obscurity may fairly be placed at the beginning of the seventh century B.C. It is true that we do not find the Licchavis among the Vedic peoples, but in the fourth century B.C. (the time of the Arthaśāstra) they are mentioned along with the Kuru-Pañcālas and the Madras, i.e. with some of the powerful races of the Brāhmanic period.

We know nothing of the history of the Licchavis during the period of their early growth and development. The earliest political fact of any importance that we know of is that a Licchavi girl was given in marriage to Seniya or Śrenika Bimbisāra, king of Magadha. This Licchavi lady, according to the Nirayāvalī Sūtra, one of the early Jaina works, was Cellanā, the daughter of Cetaka,³ one of the Rājās of Vaiśālī, whose sister Kṣatriyānī Triśalā was the mother of Mahāvīra. In a Tibetan Life of the Buddha, her name is given as Śrībhadrā,⁴ and in some places she is named Maddā.⁵ She is, however, usually called Vaidehī in the Buddhist books, and her son Ajātaśatru is frequently designated 'Vedehiputto',⁶ or the son of the Videhan princess.

¹ It may be argued that the Licchavi constitution was not a democracy, since citizenship was confined to the Licchavi clan, but in reply it may be pointed out that even in the great democracy of Athens, every resident was not a citizen. The Metics and the Slaves, for instance, were excluded from citizenship.

² See, e.g., the story of Bena and Prthu, *Mahābhārata*, *Śāntīparvan*, Vangavāsī Ed., Chap. 60, verse 94.

⁸ Jacobi, Jaina Sūtras, S.B.E., Vol. XXII, Introduction, p. xiii.

⁴ Ibid., p. xiii, note 3.

⁵ Mrs. Rhys Davids and S. Sumangala Thera, The Book of the Kindred Sayings, Pt. I, p. 38, n. 1.

⁶ Samyutta Nikāya, Pt. II, p. 268.

The *Divyāvadāna* in one passage¹ speaks of Ajātaśatru as Vaidehīputra, and elsewhere² it states that King Bimbisāra reigned at Rājagṛha with his chief queen Vaidehī, and Ajātaśatru, his son. The Tibetan *Dulva* gives the name of Vāsavī to Ajātaśatru's mother, and narrates a story regarding Ajātaśatru's origin which cannot be traced in the Pāli Canon.³

D. R. Bhandarkar holds that 'this matrimonial alliance was a result of the peace concluded after the war between Bimbisāra and the Licchavis', and that 'Bimbisāra thus appears to have seized Magadha after expelling the Vajjis beyond the Ganges'. Bhandarkar's theory is based on Rhys Davids' supposition that the expression Vesālim Māgadham puram in verse 1013 of the Suttanipāta (P.T.S.) refers to one and the same city, taking Māgadham puram in apposition to Vesālī. But the commentator has taken Māgadham to be a synonym of Rājagaha (= Rājagrha). Mention of the Pāsāṇa-cetiya in the same verse also goes to show that Māgadham puram was not Vaiśālī. In several places we find mention of the caityas or cetivas round about Vaisalī, but nowhere do we come across a Pāsāna-cetiya. From verse 1014 of the Suttanipāta it appears that this cetiya was situated on a mountain peak. It is quite possible, therefore, that it was one of the cetiyas round about Rājagrha, and most probably it was the Gṛdhrakūṭa (Pāli Gijjhakūṭa) monastery. There seems to have been some basis, however, for concluding that there was a war between Bimbisara and the Licchavis, as such a war is referred to incidentally in the Tibetan Dulva, in a passage which traces the birth of Abhaya ('fearless'), another son of Bimbisāra, also by the Licchavi woman.8 This story, which makes Abhaya or Abhayakumāra, as the Jaina books have it, a son of Ambapālī (Āmrapālī), the courtesan of Vaiśālī, is not confirmed by the Pāli books, where her son by Bimbisara is called Vimala-Kondañña, who became a Bhikkhu 9

The Licchavis appear to have been on friendly terms with King Pasenadi (Prasenajit) of Kośala, who speaks of them as his

¹ Divyāvadāna (Cowell and Neil), p. 55.

³ Rockhill, Life of the Buddha, pp. 63-4.

⁴ Carmichael Lectures, 1918, p. 74.

P.T.S. (new edition), p. 194.

² *Ibid.*, p. 545.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 73.

⁷ Suttanipāta Commentary, p. 584: 'Māgadhaṃ puranti Magadhapuraṃ Rājagahan-ti adhippāyo'.

⁸ Rockhill, Life of the Buddha, p. 64.

⁹ Psalms of the Sisters, pp. 120-1; Psalms of the Brethren, p. 65.

friends.¹ The relation of the Licchavis with their neighbours, the Mallas, also seems to have been friendly in general, as is evidenced by the Mallas standing by the Licchavis against their common foe, Ajātaśatru. The Jaina books also speak of nine Malla chiefs and nine Licchavi chiefs showing reverence to Mahāvīra at the time of his passing. There were, however, occasional hostilities between the two tribes, as is shown by the story of Bandhula, a Mallian prince, who was victorious over the Licchavi chiefs.²

We must now speak of the relations of the Licchavis with Ajātaśatru, the son and successor of Bimbisāra. The Magadhan king must have felt that the confederacy formed the greatest bar to the realisation of his idea of Magadhan expansion; and we find him taking the dreadful resolve to root out and destroy the Vajjians.

According to one account,4 the Vajjians attacked Ajātaśatru many times. This enraged him, and in order to baffle their attempts he had a fort constructed at Pātaligāma, and finally annihilated them. It is probable that Ajātaśatru was partly influenced by his fear of his foster-brother Abhava, who had Licchavi blood in him. At this time, too, the Licchavis were gaining strength day by day, and no doubt becoming increasingly arrogant. In the Sumangalavilāsinī account be we read that there was a port near the Ganges extending over a yojana, half of which belonged to Ajātaśatru and half to the Licchavis. There was a mountain not far from it, and at the foot of this mountain was a mine of precious substance (Mahogghabhanda). Once Ajātaśatru was late in arriving there, and the Licchavis took away all the treasure; and this happened again the following year. Having sustained a heavy loss. Ajātasatru decided on vengeance. He realised, however, that the Licchavis were numerically stronger; so he conceived the idea of destroying their unity by sowing seeds of dissension among them. He sent his prime minister Vassakāra to the Buddha, who predicted that in future the Licchavis would be delicate and pleasure-loving, but that at present they could not be overcome save by propitiating them with tributes, or dissolving their internal unity. When Vassakāra reported this to Ajātaśatru, the king did not agree to propitiate the Vajjians with tributes, so he decided to break up their union, and arranged to bring a trumpedup charge against Vassakāra, whereupon the latter, feigning anger at his disgrace, would go to the Vajjis and offer to betray Ajātaśatru

4 *Ibid.*, p. 18.

⁵ (P.T.S.) II, p. 516.

¹ Majjhima Nikāya, P.T.S., Vol. II, pp. 100-1 (Angulimāla Sutta).

 ² Jātaka, Vol. IV, p. 149 (Bhaddasāla Jātaka).
 ³ Buddhist Suttas, S.B.E., Vol. XI, pp. 1 and 2 (Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta).

to them. This plan was duly carried out, and the Vajjis offered Vassakāra the same post as he had held in Magadha, of 'Judicial Prime Minister'. Vassakāra accepted this post, and very soon acquired a reputation for his able administration of justice. After some time he started sowing dissension among the Licchavis, making them suspicious of each other and of their chiefs. In this way he succeeded in the course of three years in bringing about such disunion among the rulers that none of them would tread the same road together. He then sent a mission to Ajātaśatru, telling him that the time to strike had arrived. The king forthwith assembled his forces and set out. The Vajjians, on receiving intimation thereof, sounded the tocsin calling the citizens to action; but no one responded to the call, and Ajātaśatru entered the city and routed the inhabitants.¹ Thus the Magadhan kingdom was very much extended during his reign.

Of the subsequent history of the Licchavis we know very little. But it is certain that they were not completely exterminated by Ajātaśatru. He seems to have succeeded in making the Licchavis acknowledge his suzerainty and pay him revenue, but they must have been independent in the matter of internal management, and maintained their democratic institutions, for Kauṭilya speaks of them two centuries later as living under a saṃgha form of government, and advises King Candragupta Maurya to seek the help of these saṃghas which, on account of their unity and concord, were almost unconquerable.

It may safely be presumed that the Licchavis acknowledged the suzerainty of Candragupta's grandson Aśoka. After this we next meet them (as Licchivis) in Manu's Code, some time between 200 B.C. and 200 A.D., and then we do not hear of them again until the fourth century A.D., when their name appears in the

records of the Imperial Guptas.

At the beginning of the fourth century A.D., Candragupta I, a son-in-law of the Licchavi family and son of Ghatotkaca Gupta, established a new kingdom.² A gold coin was introduced under the name of Candragupta I by his son, the emperor Samudragupta, who succeeded in establishing his suzerainty over a great part of India. On the obverse of the coin were incised the figures of Candragupta and his queen Kumāradevī. The former is offering an object (which on some coins appears clearly as a ring) to his queen. The words 'Candragupta' and 'Kumāradevī', or 'Śrī Kumāradevī', or 'Kumāradevī Śriḥ' are inscribed in the Brāhmī

Dīgha Nikāya Comm. (Sumangalavilāsinī), II, 524 (P.T.S.).
 R. D. Banerjea, Prācīna Mudrā, p. 121.

character of the fourth century A.D., and on the reverse was engraved the figure of Lakṣmī, the goddess of Fortune, seated on a lion couchant, with the legend 'Licchavayaḥ', 'the Licchavis'. With this is to be combined the significant fact that Samudragupta in his Allahabad Inscription takes pride in describing himself as 'Licchavidauhitra', 'the son of a daughter of the Licchavis'. This combined evidence justifies the conclusion that in the fourth century A.D., when the Guptas rose to power, the Licchavis must have possessed considerable political power in N.E. India. It is quite probable that Candragupta's dominions received considerable expansion by the addition of the country which he obtained through his Licchavi wife Kumāradevī, perhaps by succession.

Fleet, in editing the inscriptions in which the Gupta-Licchavi connection is mentioned, observes: 'Proof of friendly relations between the early Guptas and the Licchavis, at an early time, is given by the marriage of Candra Gupta I with Kumāra Devī, the daughter of Licchavi or of a Licchavi king. And that the Licchavis were then at least of equal rank and power with the early Guptas, is shewn by the pride in this alliance manifested by the latter.' Fleet even goes so far as to declare: 'In all probability the so-called Gupta era is a Licchavi era, dating either from a time when the republican or tribal constitution of the Licchavis was abolished in favour of a monarchy; or from the commencement of the reign of Jayadeva I, as the founder of a royal house in a branch of the tribe that had settled in Nepal.2 The fact that this royal house that was planted by the Licchavis in Nepal about the period 330 to 355 A.D. by Jayadeva I s was all along Brahmanical, proves that the Licchavis had not entirely dissociated themselves from the Brahmanic faith.'

Allan presumes that it was to keep up the memory of his father, Candragupta, and his mother, Kumāradevī, that the coin bearing their names and that of the Licchavis was issued by Samudragupta. It is not improbable that the inscription 'Licchavayaḥ' which occurs on Candragupta's gold coins together with the name of his queen Kumāradevī may signify that she belonged to a royal family of the Licchavis previously reigning at Pāṭaliputra (modern Patna), which seems to have been the original capital of the Gupta empire. A similar opinion is held by V. A. Smith, who says that Candragupta, a local rājā at or near Pāṭaliputra, married Kumāradevī, a princess

¹ Fleet, Gupta Inscriptions—Corpus Ins. Ind., Vol. III, Introduction, p. 135.
² Ibid., p. 136.
³ Ibid., p. 135.

⁴ Allan, Gupta Coins, pp. 8-11. ⁵ Rapson, Indian Coins, pp. 24, 25.

belonging to the Licchavi clan, in or about the year 308. In ancient times, the Licchavis of Vaiśālī had been the rivals of the kings of Pāṭaliputra, but Candragupta was now elevated through his Licchavi connection from the rank of a local chief.

The Nepal inscriptions point out that there were two distinct houses, one of which, known as the Thākuri family, is mentioned in the *Vaṃśāvalī*, but is not recorded in the inscriptions; and the other was the Licchavi or the Sūryavaṃśī family which issued its charters from the house or palace called Mānagṛha and uniformly used an era with the Gupta epoch.²

¹ V. A. Smith, Early History of India (4th Ed.), p. 295.

² Fleet, Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, p. 135.

CHAPTER LIX

THE UTKALAS AND UDRAS

THE UTKALAS

Some Purānas seem to imply that one of the ten sons of Manu was Ila-Sudvumna, a Kimpurusha who in his turn had three sons, Utkala, Vinatāśva 2 and Gaya who enjoyed respectively the territories of Utkala, an undefined western country and Gaya.3 These three territories have sometimes been collectively designated in the Puranas as Saudyumnas.4 The Saudyumnas thus seem to have occupied the hilly tracts from Gayā to Orissa.

Epic tradition ⁵ connects the Utkalas with the Udras, Mekalas, The Dronaparvan of the Mahābhārata would Kalingas and Andhras. have us believe that Karna conquered the Utkalas along with the Mekalas, Paundras, Kalingas, Āndhras, Nisadas, Trigarttas and Vāhlikas. In the Rāmāyana the Utkala country is associated with the Mekala and Daśarna countries. In sending his army of monkeys to the different countries in quest of Sītā, Sugrīva asked Susena to send his retinue among other countries of the south to Mekala, Utkala and Daśārna (Canto XI,II).

From the Epic tradition as contained in the Mahābhārata cited above, it is evident that even as early as the period when the tradition was recorded, Utkala was distinguished from Odra or Udra and the distinction seems to have been maintained throughout in ancient Indian literature and inscriptions. It is equally evident that it was distinguished from Kalinga as well, though a verse in the Vanaparvan of the Mahābhārata 6 seems to suggest that Utkala at one time formed a part of Kalinga. The Raghuvamśa of Kālidāsa, however, represents Utkala as an independent kingdom. Brahmapurāna 8 also suggests that Utkala and Kalinga were separate According to the Raghuvamśa, the eastern boundary of

² Or simply Vinata in most Purānas, or Haritāśva according to Matsyapurāna and Padma burāna.

8 47, 7.

4 E.g., Vāyupurāna, pp. 99, 266.

¹ For a critical and synthetic study of Paurānic legends in this connection, see Pargiter, A.I.H.T., pp. 253-4.

³ Utkalasya Otkalam rāstram Vinatāsvasya pascimam dik pūrvā tasya rājarser Gayasya tu Gayāpurī.

⁵ Mbh., Bhīsmaparvan, Chap. IX, 348; Dronaparvan, Chap. IV, 122.

⁶ Vanaparvan, Chap. 114. 7 IV. v. 38.

Utkala seems to have extended to the river Kapiśā (probably identical with either the modern Suvarnarekhā, according to Lassen, or with the Kāśāi in Midnapur, according to Pargiter) and to the realm of the Mekalas on the west, with whom they are constantly associated, and who were inhabitants presumably of the Mekala hills. Apadāna of the Khuddaka Nikāya of the Sutta-pitaka, a book of the Pāli Canon, Okkalā or Ukkalā or Utkalas were a tribe mentioned along with the Mekalas.1 Southward must have extended the realm of the Kalingas. From this, Pargiter deduced that Utkala must have comprised the southern portion of modern Chotanagpur.2 He further suggests that the reading Suhmottarāh, a people of the eastern countries, of the Matsyapurāna,8 should be amended to Suhmotkalāh to mean the 'Suhmas and the Utkalas', in which case the Utkalas become the immediately contiguous southern neighbours of the Suhmas who occupied roughly the modern districts of Bankura, Midnapore, Purulia and Manbhum. The Mārkandeya Purāņa, however, locates the Utkalas as inhabiting the Vindhya mountains, along with the Karūshas, Keralas (according to Vāyu and Matsya Purānas, the reading here should be Mekalas and not Keralas which is evidently incorrect), the Uttamaranas and the Daśārnas. Roughly speaking, the Utkalas were indeed a Vindhyan people inasmuch as the Chotanagpur hills are just an extension of the Vindhya ranges.

Coming to more definite historical times, we hardly find mention of the Utkalas as a people, though in later inscriptions and literature there are numerous references to Utkaladesa or Utkalavisaya, the country presumably of the Utkala people. Thus a twelfth century epigraph of Gāhadavāla Govindachandra refers to a Buddhist scholar Śākyaraksita, who was a resident of the Utkaladeśa. Another inscription, also of the twelfth century (Bhuvaneswar Stone Inscription of Narasimha I) refers to the building of a Visnu temple by Candrikā, sister of Narasimha, at Ekāmra or modern Bhuvaneswar, in the Utkalavisaya. It is obvious from this inscription that Utkalavisaya at this period at least comprised the Puri and Bhuvaneswar regions as well. Earlier, in the Bhagalpur grant of Nārāyaṇapāla, a certain king of the Utkalas (Utkalānāmādhīśa) took fright and fled from his capital at the approach of Prince Jayapāla of the Pāla dynasty. The Bāḍal Pillar Inscription of the time of Guḍavamiśra credits King Devapāla with having eradicated the race of the Utkalas along with the pride of the Hunas and the conceit of the rulers of Dravida and Gurjara. The Ramacaritam of Sandhyākara Nandī in giving a list of foreign countries invaded by

¹ Pt. II, p. 359.

² Mārkaņdeya P., p. 327 f.n.

his hero Rāmapāla distinguishes Utkala from Kalinga in the eleventh century. A Sonpur grant of Mahāśivagupta Yayāti, of about the same date, also distinguishes Utkaladeśa from Kalinga and Kongoda.

The Buddhist literature contains some interesting information about Utkalas or Okkalas. Two merchants, named Tapussa and Bhallika, were on their way from Ukkala to see the Buddha who was at the foot of the Rājāyatana tree near Uruvelā. They were asked by their relative to offer food to the Blessed One who at first refused to accept it, but he afterwards accepted it and ate it up. The two merchants became his disciples. They were wealthy merchants who also visited Majjhimadeśa from Ukkala with five hundred carts. Two inhabitants of Ukkala, named Vassa and Bhañña, did not believe in causation action on reality (ahetuvādā, akiriyāvādā, and natthikavādā).

THE UDRAS

The earliest mention of the Udras or Odras or Audras as a people is, perhaps, found in the following śloka of the Mānavadharma-śāstra where the Odras are classed as outside the Brahmanical pale (i.e. Mlecchas) along with the Pauṇḍrakas, Drāviḍas, Kambojas, Yavanas, Śakas, Pāradas, Pahlavas, Cīnas, Kirātas, Daradas and Khaśas.

Sanakaistu kriyālopādimāḥ kshatriyajātayaḥ Vṛṣalatvam gatā loke brāhmaṇādarśanena cha Pauṇḍrakāśchauḍra Drāviḍa Kamboja Yavanāḥ Śakāḥ Pāradaḥ Pahlavaśchaināḥ Kirātā Daradāḥ Khaśāḥ.

The Apadāna, a work of the Pāli Canon, mentions Oḍḍakā who were the same as Odrā or Udrā.⁵

Pliny in his *Natural History* mentions the Oretes as a people of India in whose country stood Mount Maleus which in another passage he locates amongst the Monedes and Suari. Cunningham identifies the last two peoples as the Mundas and Suars, from which he is led to conclude that the Oretes must be the people of Orissa. But it must be remembered that even then we cannot definitely equate the Greek Oretes with the Sanskrit Oḍra or Uḍra or Auḍradeśa.

Epic tradition connects the Udras along with the Pondras, Utkalas, Mekalas, Kalingas and Andhras. According to the

¹ Cf. *Mahāvastu*, III, p. 303, where Ukkalā is mentioned as situated in Uttarāpatha.

² Vinaya Piṭaka, P.T.S., Vol. I, pp. 3-4.

³ Jātaka, Fausböll, I, p. 80.

⁴ Anguttara Nikāya, II, p. 3; Cf. Saṃyutta Nikāya, III, p. 73; Majjhima Nikāya, III, 78, and Kathāvatthu, I, p. 141.

⁵ Pt. II, p. 358.

⁶ Vanaparvan, LI, 1988; Bhīşmaparvan, IX, 365; Dronaparvan, IV, 122.

Brahmapurāṇa (28, 29, 42) which is admittedly very late, the country of the Oḍras extended northwards to Vrajamaṇḍala (Jājpur), and consisted of three kshetras called Purushottama or Śrīkshetra, Savitu or Arkakshetra, and Birajākshetra through which flew the river Vaitaraṇī. But it is somewhat strange that nowhere in early inscriptions do we find any mention of the people and their country. The first elaborate account of the people and their country is found in the itinerary of Hsüan Tsang. From Karṇasuvarṇa the pilgrim travelled south-west for about 722 li and came to the Wu-t'u or U-cha country.

'The country was above 7,000 li in circuit, and its capital above 20 li. The people were of violent ways, tall and of dark complexion, in speech and manners different from the people of "Mid-India". They were indefatigable students and many of them were Buddhists. There were above 100 Buddhist monasteries, and a myriad brethren, all Mahāyānists. Of deva temples there were fifty, and the various sects lived pell-mell. Near the shore of the ocean in the south-east of this country was the city Che-li-ta-lo (= Charitrapura = Puri?), above 20 li in circuit which was a thoroughfare and resting-place for sea-going traders and strangers from distant lands.'1

About a century later the country of the Odras became involved in chaos which has been described as mātsyanyāya in contemporary records. The celebrated Tibetan historian Tārānāth in his History of Buddhism records that Odiviśa, Vanga and five other countries of the east plunged themselves in a chaotic political condition 2 from which they were rescued by the election of King Gopāla on the throne. Odiviśa of Tārānāth is certainly a corruption or adaptation of Odra-viṣaya. Odiviśa is further mentioned by Tārānāth in connection with the reign of Devapāla who is credited by him as having 'brought into submission the kingdom of Varendra in the east and afterwards the province of Odiviśa'.

The Tirumalai Rock Inscription of the thirteenth year of King Rājendra Coļa credits the king as having seized by his great warlike army the Oḍḍa-viṣaya in the course of his northern expedition. This Oḍḍa-viṣaya is certainly identical with Oḍra-viṣaya. The Coḷa king, Rāja-rāja, is also said to have conquered the Oḍḍa country. Doubtless, during this period, Oḍḍa-viṣaya came to mean the whole of the present Orissa country.

¹ Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, pp. 193-4.

² 'There was no longer any member of it (the royal family of the Candras) a king; in Odiviśa, in Vanga, and the other five provinces to the east, each Kṣatriya, Brāhmana, and merchant, constituted himself king of his surroundings, but there was no king ruling the country.'—Tārānāth, Ind. Ant., IV, 1875, pp. 365-6.

CHAPTER LX

THE AVANTIS

In Vedic times, the Avantis do not emerge into importance as a ruling Ksatriya tribe of ancient India. Their name is not found in the Vedic literature; but in the Mahābhārata they are found to be one of the most powerful of the Ksatriya clans. Their dual monarchs, Vinda and Anuvinda, each led an aksauhinī of troops to Duryodhana's army, and thus the Avantis made up one-fifth of the entire Kuru host (V, 19, 24).1 The two monarchs are designated 'mahāratha' ('great warrior'), the highest title given to an epic warrior (VII, 5, 99),2 and are spoken of as wielding powerful bows.3 The two Avanti princes figure very prominently in the battle, and many are the glorious and heroic deeds with which they are credited. They rendered useful service to the Kaurava cause by their individual prowess and generalship as well as by the large army consisting of forces of every description which they led to battle. They fought bravely in the field until they were slain,—by Arjuna, according to one account (VII, 99, 3691), and by Bhima, according to another (XI, 22, 617). We read of the mighty hosts of the Avantis— Sainyam Āvantyānām—in the Karnaparvan and elsewhere (VII, 113, 4408; VIII, 8, 235).

The Matsyapurāṇa (Chap. 43) traces the origin of the Avantis to the Haihaya dynasty of which Kārttavīryārjuna was the most glorious ruler, and adds that Avanti was the name borne by one of the sons of this monarch. The Lingapurāṇa states that out of the hundred sons of Kārttavīryārjuna, five, namely Śūra, Śūrasena, Dṛṣṭa, Kṛṣṇa and Yayudhvaja, ruled Avanti and acquired great renown. The Viṣṇu-Dharmottara Mahāpurāṇa (Chap. IX) and the Padmapurāṇa (Svarga Khaṇḍa, Chap. III) speak of Avanti as one of the mahājanapadas or chief provinces of ancient India. The Skandapurāṇa has a whole section, the Āvantyakhaṇḍa, dealing with the sacred sites and places of pilgrimage in the country of the Avantis. It is stated (Chap. 43) that the god Mahādeva, after he

 $^{^{1}}$ ʻ $ar{A}$ vantyau ca mah $ar{\imath}$ pālau mahāvalasaṃvṛtau pṛthagakṣuhiṇ $ar{\imath}$ bhyāṃ tāvabhiyātau uyodhanam.'

² 'Vindānuvindāvāvantyau rājaputrau mahārathau.' See also Mbh., V, 166, 5753, Cal. Ed.; Bhīṣmaparvan, VI, 99, 4504; VI, 114, 5293, 5309.

⁸ VI, 83, 3650; VI, 94, 4195.

⁴ Mbh., VI, 16, 622; II, 17, 673, etc.; VI, 59, 2584; VI, 81, 3557; VI, 83, 3650-60; VI, 86, 3823; VI, 102, 4666; VI, 113, 5240; VII, 14, 542; 25, 1083; 32, 1410.

had destroyed the demon Tripura, visited Avantipura, which came to be known as Ujjayinī in honour of his victory. This Purāṇa in the section of Ayodhyā-māhātmya (Chap. I) relates that saints of Ujjayinī, the Avanti capital, came to Kurukṣetra with their dis-

ciples to attend the sacrifice of Rāma.

The Purānas also speak of intermarriages between the royal family of the Avantis and the ruling dynasty of the Yadus. Thus the Viṣṇupurāṇa (IV, 12) and Agnipurāṇa (Chap. 275) state that a Yadu princess called Rājyādhidevī was married to the king of Avanti. She was one of the five sisters of the Yadu monarch, Vasudeva, son of Sūra. The Viṣṇupurāṇa adds (IV, 14) that Rājyādhidevī bore two sons, Vinda and Ūpavinda, who are most probably to be identified with the Avanti princes, Vinda and Anuvinda of Epic fame.

The grammarian Pāṇini refers to Avanti in one of his sūtras

(IV, 1, 176).

With regard to the location of Avanti, the sage Dhaumya (Vanaparvan, Mbh.), in enumerating the places of pilgrimage in W. India, refers to the country of the Avantis, and speaks of the sacred river Narmadā as being situated therein. At the beginning of the Virāṭaparvan, Arjuna mentions Avanti along with other kingdoms in W. India, namely, Surāṣtra and Kunti (IV, I, I2). The geographical connection between the Avantis and the Kuntis is also shown in the description of Bhāratavarṣa in the Bhāṣmaparvan (VI, 9, 350). A path leading to the city of Avanti is referred to in the Nalopākhyāna of the Vanaparvan (III, 61, 2317). Mrs. Rhys Davids notes that Avanti lay north of the Vindhya mountains north-west of Bombay. It was one of the four chief monarchies in India when Buddhism arose, and was later absorbed into the Mauryan empire.

Rhys Davids observes: 'The country (Avanti), much of which is rich land, had been colonized or conquered by Aryan tribes who came down the Indus valley and turned west from the Gulf of Kutch. It was called Avanti at least as late as the second century A.D. (see Rudradāman's Inscription at Junāgadh) but from the seventh or eighth century onwards, it was called Mālava' (Buddhist India, p. 28).

Ujjayinī, which was situated on the Siprā, a tributary of the Carmanvatī (Chambal), is the modern Ujjain in Gwalior, Central India. It was the capital of Avanti or Western Mālava, and the residence of the Viceroy of the western provinces both under the Maurya and the Gupta empires.³

¹ Mbh., Vanaparvan, III, 89, 8354; Avantişu Pratīcyām vai.

² Psalms of the Brethren, p. 107, note i.

⁸ Rapson, Ancient India, p. 175, s.v. Ujjayinī.

In the *Dīpavaṃsa*,¹ we read that Ujjenī (Ujjayinī) was built by Accutagāmī. Watters ² points out that the Avanti capital Ujayana mentioned by Hsüan Tsang is generally supposed to be the well-known Ujain or Ujjen (Ujjain). In some of the canonical scriptures, Ujain is located to the west of Kanoj, which lies between Ujain and Benares.

The Chinese pilgrim Hsüan Tsang thus describes Ujjayinī, which name he gives to the whole country surrounding the capital—'Ujjainī is about 6,000 li in circuit; the capital is some 30 li round. The produce and manners of the people are like those of the country of Surāṣṭra. The population is dense and the establishments wealthy. There are several tens of convents, but they are mostly in ruins; some three or five are preserved. There are some 300 priests; they study the doctrines both of the Great and the Little Vehicle. There are several tens of Deva temples, occupied by sectaries of various kinds. The king belongs to the Brahman caste. He is well-versed in heretical books, and believes not in the true law. Not far from the city is a stūpa; this is the place where Aśoka-rājā made the hell (of punishment).'3

Owing to its position, Avanti became a great commercial centre. Three trade-routes met here; from the western coast with its sea-ports, Sūrpāraka (Sopāra) and Bhṛgukaccha (Broach); from the Deccan; and from Śrāvastī in Kośala (Oudh). It was also a great centre of science and literature. Ujjayinī was one of the seven sacred cities of the Hindus, and astronomers reckoned their first meridian of longitude from there. The dramas of Kālidāsa were performed on the occasion of the Spring Festival before the viceregal court of Ujjayinī, c. 400 A.D.4

An interesting notice of Ujjain is to be found in the *Periplus of the Erythraean Sea* (sec. 48) where we read: 'Eastward from Barygaza (=Bhrgukaccha) is a city called Ozene, formerly the capital where the king resided. From this place is brought down to Barygaza every commodity for local consumption or export to other parts of India, onyx-stones, porcelain, fine muslins, mallow-tinted cottons and the ordinary kinds in great quantities. It imports from the upper country through Proklais for transport to the coast, spikenard, kostos and bdellium.' The ancient city no longer exists, but its ruins can be traced at a distance of a mile from its modern successor.⁵

¹ Oldenberg, p. 57, Text.

² On Yuan Chwang, Vol. II, pp. 250-1.

³ Buddhist Records of the Western World, Vol. II, p. 270.

⁴ Rapson, Ancient India, p. 175; and see McCrindle, Ancient India as described by Ptolemy, p. 154.

⁵ McCrindle, Ancient India as described by Ptolemy, p. 155.

Avanti was one of the most flourishing kingdoms of ancient India, mentioned in the Aṅguttara Nikāya as one of the sixteen 'mahājanapadas' of Jambudvīpa.¹ From the first, Avanti became an important centre of the new doctrine which we now call Buddhism, and may have been the scene of elaboration of Pāli, the sacred language of the Buddhists.² Several of the most earnest adherents of the Dhamma were either born or resided there: Abhaya Kumāra,³ Isidāsī,⁴ Isidatta,⁵ Dhammapāla,⁶ Sona Kuṭikaṇṇa,² and especially Mahākaccāyana.⁵

Many are the stories that are told of Mahākaccāyana. He was born at Ujjayinī in the family of the chaplain of King Caṇḍapajjota. He learnt the three Vedas, and, on his father's death, succeeded him in the chaplainship. Subsequently, both Mahākaccāyana and the king his master were converted by the Buddha, and Mahākaccāyana devoted himself to furthering the Dhamma in his native province. One of his most celebrated converts was Sono Kuṭikaṇṇo (so called because he used to wear car-jewellery worth a crore). Kuṭikanno, the son of a wealthy councillor of Avanti, became a land-owner, but asked Mahākaccāyana to ordain him, after hearing him preach. Isidatta was another of Mahākaccāyana's converts. He was born at Velugāma as the son of a guide to caravans.

Dhammapāla, a Brahman's son of the country of Avanti, was also one of the early converts to the new faith. When he was returning from the university of Takṣaṣīlā after completing his education, he met a thera, heard the Dhamma from him, left the world and acquired six-fold abhiññā.¹²

When the first Great Council of the disciples of the Buddha was held after his *parinibbāna*, to compile his teachings, Yasa sent messengers to the bhikkhus of Avanti inviting them to attend and help to perform the task.¹³ This shows that at that time

¹ Anguttara Nikāya, Vol. IV, pp. 252, 256, 261.

² Eliot, Hinduism and Buddhism, Vol. I, p. 282.

Theragāthā Commentary, 39.

Theragāthā, 120.

Theragāthā, 120.

Theragāthā, 120.

Theragāthā, 120.

⁷ Vinaya Texts, II, 32; Theragāthā, 369; Udāna, V, 6.

⁸ Samyutta Nikāya, III, p. 9; IV, 117; Anguttara Nikāya, I, p. 23; V, 46; Majjhima Nikāya, III, 194, 223.

⁹ Psalms of the Brethren, pp. 238-9; also (for further stories of Mahākaccāyana) Anguttara Nikāya, V, pp. 46-7; Samyutta Nikāya, III, pp. 9ff.; ibid., Vol. IV, pp. 115-16: Dhammapada Commentary, Vol. II, pp. 176-7.

¹⁰ Dhammapada Commentary, Vol. IV, p. 101; cf. also Vinaya Texts, S.B.E., Pt. II. pp. 32ff.; Psalms of the Brethren, pp. 202-3.

¹¹ Psalms of the Brethren, p. 107; Samyutta Nikāya, IV, pp. 285-8.

¹² Psalms of the Brethren, p. 149.

¹⁸ Vinaya Texts, Pt. III, p. 394; cf. Geiger, Mahāvamsa, Tr., p. 21.

(c. 480 B.C.) followers of the new faith in the western province of Avanti must have been numerous and influential.

King Bimbisāra of Magadha had a son, Abhaya, by a courtesan

of Ujjavini named Padumavati.1

The great propounder of the Jaina faith, Mahāvīra, is said to have performed some of his penances in the country of Avanti, especially in Ujjayinī.² Here, too, the temple of Mahākāla—one of the twelve most famous Saiva temples in India—was built.⁸ One of the sacred places of the Lingayat sect is situated at Ujjain. The Lingavat itinerant ascetics wander over India, frequenting

especially the five simhāsanas or Lingāvat sees.4

With regard to the political history of Avanti, we have already referred to King Canda Pajjota or Pradyota, who was a contemporary of the Buddha, and under whom the new faith became the state religion of Avanti. The Pradyotas were kings of Avanti (Western Malwa), and their capital was Ujjayini.⁵ There is a reference to King Canda Pajjota in the Chinese Buddhist legends collected by Beal.⁶ In Buddha's time, the king of Madhurā (Mathurā) was styled Avantiputta, showing that on his mother's side he was connected with the royal family of Ujjain.7

The commentary on verses 21-3 of the Dhammapada gives a romantic story of the manner in which a matrimonial alliance was established between the royal families of Kausambī and Avanti. One day, King Pajjota asked his courtiers whether there was any king more glorious than himself, and they told him that King Udena of Kosambī surpassed him. Angered, King Pajjota determined to attack Udena. He caused a wooden elephant to be made, and concealed sixty warriors in it. Knowing that Udena had a great liking for fine elephants, he had him informed by spies that a magnificent elephant was to be found in the frontier forest. King Udena came to the forest, and, in pursuit of the prize, became separated from his retinue and was taken prisoner. While a captive, he fell in love with Vāsuladattā, daughter of King Pajjota. One day, when Pajjota was away on a pleasure jaunt, Udena put Vāsuladattā on an elephant and eloped with her. On his return, King Pajjota sent a force in pursuit, but the wily Udena delayed

¹ Therigāthā Commentary, p. 39. For further references in Buddhist texts to Ujjain and Avanti, see, e.g. Therigāthā Commentary, pp. 260-1, Vimānavatthu Commentary, pp. 137ff. 8 Ibid., p. 75.

² Mrs. S. Stevenson, The Heart of Jainism, p. 33. 4 Eliot, Hinduism and Buddhism, Vol. II, p. 227.

⁵ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, pp. 310-11.

⁶ The Romantic Legend of Sakya Buddha, S. Beal, p. 20. 7 Carmichael Lectures, 1918, p. 53.

his pursuers by scattering coins and gold-dust on the route, and reached his own territory in safety. Udena and Vāsuladattā entered the city in triumph, and with due pomp and ceremony the

princess was anointed queen.1

In the fourth century B.C., Ujjayinī became subject to Magadha. Later (early third century B.C.), Aśoka was stationed at Ujjayinī as Viceroy of the Avanti country, prior to his accession.² We read ⁸ that Aśoka's son, Mahinda, was born while Aśoka was Viceroy in Ujjayinī, under his father Bindusāra. Aśoka's grandson, Samprati, ruled in Ujjain and figured in Jaina legends.⁴ Vikramāditya, the celebrated king of Ujjain, who is usually identified with Candragupta II (c. 375 A.D.) is said to have expelled the Scythians and thereafter established his power over the greater part of India.

In later times some of the ruling families of Avanti made their mark on Indian history. The Paramara dynasty of Malwa, anciently known as Avanti, is especially memorable by reason of its association with many eminent names in the history of later Sanskrit literature. The dynasty was founded early in the ninth century by a chief named Upendra or Kṛṣṇarāja. Upendra appears to have come from Candrāvatī and Āchalgarh near Mount Abu, where his clan had been settled for a long time. The seventh rājā, named Muñja, was famous for his learning and eloquence, and was not only a patron of poets but himself a poet of no small reputation. About 1018 A.D., Muñja's nephew, the famous Bhoja, ascended the throne of Dhārā, which was the capital of Malwa in those days, and reigned gloriously for more than forty years. About 1060 A.D., this prince succumbed to an attack by the confederate kings of Gujarat and Cedi; but his dynasty lasted as a purely local power until the beginning of the thirteenth century, when it was superseded by chiefs of the Tomara clan, who were followed in their turn by Chauhan rājās, from whom the crown passed to Muhammadan kings in 1401. The Emperor Akbar suppressed the local dynasty in 1560, and incorporated Malwa in the Mughal empire.

There is generally one distinguishing mark of the coins current in Ujjain; but on some of the rare coins the word 'Ujeniya' is incised in Brāhmī characters of the second century B.C. Generally on one side is a man with a symbol of the Sun and on the other is seen the sign of Ujjain. On some coins, a bull within a fence, or the Bodhi-tree, or Sumeru hill, or the figure of the Goddess of Fortune,

¹ Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, pp. 4-7. The same story is related in another form by Bhāsa in his drama, Svapnavāsavadattā; Dham. Com., Vol. I, pp. 191-2.

² V. A. Smith, Aśoka, p. 235.

³ Copleston, Buddhism, p. 181.

⁴ Mrs. Stevenson, Heart of Jainism, p. 74.

⁵ Smith, Early History of India, 4th Ed., p. 410.

⁶ Ibid., p. 411.

is seen on one side. Some coins of Ujjain are quadrangular while others are round.¹ The class of round coins found at Ujjain display a special symbol, the 'cross and balls', known from its almost universal occurrence on the coins of ancient Malwa as the Ujjain symbol.² Square copper Mughal coins were struck at Ujjain up to the time of Shah Jahan I.³

¹ R. D. Banerjee, Prācīna Mudrā, p. 108.

² Brown, Coins of India, p. 20.

³ Ibid., p. 87.

kingdoms of the Sibis, Vṛṣadarbhas, Madras, Kekayas and Sauvīras, thus occupying the whole of the Punjab except the north-western corner. According to the *Agnipurāṇa* (Chap. 200), the river Devikā, but, according to the *Bhāgavatapurāṇa* (verse 10), the river

Iksumatī flowed through Sauvīra.

Other Epic references to the Sauvīras include the mention of a Sauvīra king Satruñjaya, who received instruction from a priest named Bharadvāja (Mbh., XII, Chap. 140, 5249-50), and of a Sauvīra princess who married Manasyu, the son of Pravīra by a Saurasena princess, and grandson of Puru (Mbh., Ādiparvan, Chap. 49, 3696-7). Sovīra or Sauvīra is also mentioned in early Buddhist literature. The Mahāgovinda Suttanta² refers to Sovīra whose king was Bharata; while the Divyāvadāna in relating a story (pp. 544-86) accounting for the name of Bharukaccha (Broach), refers to Rudrāyaṇa, king of Roruka in Sauvīra. The Mahābhāṣya of Patañjali and the Vyākaraṇa of Kramadeśvara mention a city named Dattāmitri in Sauvīra.³ In the Milinda-Pañho, Sovīra is described as a great sea-port (Trenckner Ed., p. 359); and it is not unlikely that the country is identical with the famous Sophir or Ophir of the Bible.⁴ Alberuni appears to identify Sauvīra with Multan and Jahrawar (India, Vol. I, pp. 300, 302); while, according to the Haimakoṣa (IV, 26), the Sauvīra country is identical with Kunālaka.

Towards the middle of the second century A.D., the land of the Sindhus and the Sauvīras seems to have been administered by the Kṣatrapa rulers of W. India. The Junāgadh Rock Inscription of Rudradāman (c. 150 A.D.) refers to the Mahākṣatrapa's conquest of Sindhu-Sauvīra, along with E. and W. Ākara (= mod. Khandesh) and Avanti (Pūrvaparākarāvanti), Anupanivṛt (probably the Māndhātā region), Ānartta, Surāṣṭra, Svabhra, Maru, Kaccha, Kukura, Aparānta and other countries. The Kṣatrapas seem, however, to have wrested the country from the Kuṣāṇas, probably from one of the successors of Kaṇiṣka. After the era of the Kṣatrapas, the region probably passed over to the Guptas, and later to the Maitrakas of

¹ Pargiter, A.I.H.T., pp. 109, 264; and Chap. on Yaudheyas.

² Dīgha, II, pp. 235-6.

³ Ind. Ant., 1911, Foreign Elements in Hindu Population (Bhandarkar); Bomb. Gaz., I, ii, 11; Kramadiśvara, p. 96.

⁴ Cunningham, A.G.I., pp. 569-71.

⁵ P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., p. 390. Sindhu is the inland portion lying to the west of the Indus (Watters, On Yuan Chwang, II, 252-3 read with 256). Sauvīra includes the inland portion lying to the east of the Indus as far as Multan (Alberuni, I, 302; Ind. Ant., 7, 259). See also in this connection Appendix B of P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., dealing with the Chronological relation of Kaniska and Rudradāman I (pp. 522-7).

Valabhi. The country of the Sindhus, i.e. Sind, was the first kingdom to feel the impact of the conquering raids of the Arabs. An eighth century copperplate grant of the Gujarat Cālukya Pulakeśirāja¹ refers to the Tājikas (i.e. Arabs), who are described as having defeated the Saindhavas and other tribes of W. India.

¹ Bom. Gaz., Vol. I, Pt. I, p. 109.

CHAPTER LXII

THE SURĀŞŢRAS

The Surastras as a tribe must have existed at least as early as the period represented by the Epics. The tribe, together with its country, is mentioned in more than one connection in Valmīki's $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}\gamma ana.$ The Kiskindhyā Kānda locates the tribe in the west; for, in sending the retinue of monkeys in the western direction in quest of Sītā, Sugrīva asked Susena to send his unit to Surāstra (among other countries). There are a number of countries and peoples in this list, e.g. the Kalingas, Andhras, Cholas, Vidarbhas. etc. that cannot be located in the west; but the fact that the Surāstras were included in the west division of India is upheld not only by a reference in the Mahābhārata,2 where they are associated with the countries of the Kuntis and Avantis, but also by the evidence of the Purānas. According to the Visnupurāna, they are definitely located in the extreme west, and associated with the Sūras. Ābhīras, Arbudas and Mālavas, all of whom dwelt along the Pāripātra mountains. The Mārkandeya Purāṇa4 includes them in W. India (Aparānta), while the Brahmapurāṇa associates them with the Aparāntas, Sūdras, Ābhīras and Mālavas, and describes them as dwelling along the Pariyatra (= Paripatra) hills. geographical location of the tribe is also supported by the evidence of the Kāvyamīmāmsā 5 of Rājasekhara who includes the Surastra country in the Paścaddeśa or west division along with Dasoraka, Travana, Bhṛgukaccha, Kacchīya, Ānartta, Arbuda and countries. At the time of the Mahābhārata, the Surāstra country was ruled by the Yādavas.

The Surāṣṭra country is referred to in Baudhāyana's Dharmasūtra, where it is coupled with Daksiṇāpatha (Deccan). The country came to be included in the Maurya empire as early as the reign of Candragupta; for the Junāgaḍh Rock Inscription of Rudradāman refers to Candragupta's Rāṣṭrīya (= Viceroy) Puṣyagupta the Vaiśya, who constructed the Sudarśana lake. It was included in Aśoka's dominions, for the same inscription refers to Tushāspha, a Persian contemporary and vassal of Aśoka, who carried out supplementary operations on the lake. This Tushāspha

¹ Ādi Kānḍa, Canto XII; Ayodhyā Kānḍa, Canto X; Kiṣkindhyā Kānḍa, Canto XII.

² Virātaparvan, Chap. I, 12.

⁴ Chap. 57, 52.

⁸ Book II, Chap. III, 132-5.

⁵ Gaekwad's Oriental Series, pp. 93-4.

was Rājā of the Surāṣṭra Saṃgha (community). That Surāṣṭra enjoyed the democratic form of government implied by the use of the word 'Saṃgha' is also testified to by Kauṭilya¹ (*Arthaśāstra*, p. 378), who refers to a number of Saṃghas, among which were

included Kamboja and Surāstra.

The records of Greek historians establish that after Aśoka and his successors, Surāṣṭra passed into the hands of the Bactrian Greeks. According to Strabo,² the Bactrian conquests were achieved partly by Menander (middle of second century B.C.) and partly by Demetrios, son of Euthydemos (c. 190 B.C.). They gained possession not only of Patalene, but of the kingdom of Saraostos and Sigerdis³ which constitutes the remainder of the coast. Patalene is to be identified with the Indus delta, while Saraostos must certainly be identical with Surāṣṭra (Syrastrēnē of Ptolemy).

Ptolemy 'refers to a country called Syrastrēnē, which must be identical with Surāṣtra (= mod. Sorath in Kathiawar) on the Gulf of Kanthi (= Gulf of Kaccha or Cutch). Syrastrēnē, which extended from the mouth of the Indus to the Gulf of Cutch, was one of the three divisions of Indo-Scythia in Ptolemy's time, —the other two being Patalene and Abiria. Syrastrēnē is also mentioned in the *Periplus of the Erythraean Sea* as the sea-board of Aberia (= Abiria = Ābhīra), which is to be identified with the region to the east of the Indus, above the insular portion formed by its bifurcation (McCrindle, p. 140). Pliny, in his enumeration of the tribes of this part of India, mentions the Horatae,—evidently a corruption of Surāṣtra or Sorath (Lib., VI, c. XX).

The Indo-Scythian or Saka rule was interrupted by a member of the Andhra dynasty, Viliyavākura II (Gautamīputra Sātakarnī, 113–138 A.D.). In the Junāgadh Rock Inscription, Rudradāman is stated to have extended his rule over East and West Avanti, Anartta, Surāṣṭra, Anupa, Sindhu-Sauvīra, Maru, Kaccha, Kukura, Aparānta, etc. Of these, Surāṣṭra, Kukura, Anupa and Aparānta, which formed parts of Gautamīputra Sātakarnī's dominions, must have been conquered either from him or from one of his sons.

After the Scythian occupation, Surāṣṭra seems to have passed into the hands of the Guptas. It is not improbable that Surāṣṭra was one of the countries whose rulers hastened to buy peace by establishing diplomatic relations with Samudragupta (c. 326–375)

¹ Arthaśāstra, p. 378.

² Strabo, Bk. XI, sec. XI, I, in Falconer's version. (Strabo, Hamilton and Falconer, Vol. II, pp. 252-3, vide also Ray Chaudhuri, *Political History of Ancient India*, 4th Ed., p. 317.)

⁸ Prob. = Sāgaradvīpa of Mahābhārata, II, 31, 66.

⁴ See McCrindle's Ptolemy, pp. 35-6, 136, 140.

A.D.). The Saka-Muruṇḍas alluded to in the Allahabad Pillar Inscription (C.I.I., Vol. III) were probably the Kṣatrapas of Indo-Scythia who came to do homage to the great conqueror. His successor Candragupta II (375–413 A.D.) also seems to have led a successful campaign against the Western Kṣatrapas of Surāṣṭra.¹ The fall of the Saka Satrapa is alluded to by Bāṇa, and also proved by coins; while we find decisive evidence of the Gupta occupation of Surāṣṭra in the Junāgaḍh Inscription of Skandagupta (c. 455–480 Å.D.) which tells us that he (Skanda) 'deliberated for days and nights before making up his mind who could be trusted with the important task of guarding the lands of the Surāṣṭras'.² He finally appointed Parṇadatta as governor.

The rule of the Guptas in this territory does not seem to have long survived Skandagupta. Soon the Maitrakas of Valabhi asserted their independence, and established their supremacy over West Malwa, Baroda, Gujrat, Kathiawar and the adjoining region.³ Accordingly, when Hsüan Tsang visited Su-la-ch'a or Suratha in the seventh century A.D., it was included in the kingdom of Valabhi. According to the pilgrim, Su-la-ch'a touched the river Mo-hi (= Mahi) on the west, and its capital lay at the foot of Mt. Yuh-shan-ta (= Prakrit Ujjanta, Skr. Urjayat of the Junāgaḍh Inscriptions of Rudradāman and Skandagupta), which is to be identified with

the Girnar hill near Junagadh.4

When the Maitrakas of Valabhi became extinct about the middle of the eighth century A.D., the Surāṣṭras seem to have suffered a reverse at the hands of the Tājikas who are generally identified with the Arabs. Already, during the early years of the eighth century, the Arabs had taken possession of Sind, and it is certainly not unlikely that they attempted a conquest of the neighbouring Surāṣṭra country. In a Nausari Copperplate grant of the Gujarat Cālukyas, Pulakesirāja (eighth century A.D.) is credited with having defeated the Tājikas who are therein reported to have destroyed the Saindhavas, Kacchelas, Surāṣṭras, Cāvotakas, Gurjaras and Mauryas, before they were themselves defeated by the Cālukya king.⁵

¹ C.I.I., Vol. III—Udaygiri Cave Inscription.

² Ibid.

⁸ Ray, Maitrakas of Valabhi, I.H.Q., Sept., 1928.

⁴ C.A.G.I., Mazumdar's Ed., pp. 372-4, 697-8. ⁵ Bomb. Gazetteer, Vol. I, Pt. I, p. 109.

CHAPTER LXIII

THE SUDRAS

The $\dot{S}udras$ as a tribe (as distinct from the fourth caste) seem to have played some part in Ancient Indian History, and are several times mentioned in the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ and Purāṇas, as also in the

accounts of Greek geographers and historians.

The Sūdras were a fairly important tribe of the north-west at the time when Alexander the Great invaded India (326 B.C.). They were among those who were vanquished by the Macedonian conqueror. Greek writers refer to them as Sodrai, in association with the Massanoi and Mousikaroi, all of whom occupied portions of modern Sind. The next datable reference to the tribe is contained in Patañjali's Mahābhāṣya (1, 2, 3), where they are associated with the Ābhīras. In the Mahābhārata also they are associated with the Ābhīras,¹ and are said to have occupied the region where the river Sarasvatī vanishes into the desert, i.e. near Vinaśana in Western Rajputana.²

In the *Harivaṃśa*,³ we have 'Madrābhīrāḥ' (Madras and Ābhīras) where we would expect to find 'Śūdrābhīrāḥ'; here Madra may be a misreading for Śūdra, for the Madras are hardly anywhere

connected with the Abhīras.4

According to the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa (57, 35), the Śūdras were located in the Λparānta region or western country, and were associated with the Vāhlīkas, Vātadhānas, Ābhīras, Pallavas, etc. The Brahmapurāṇa ⁵ also places them in the west, and associates them with the Saurāṣṭras, Ābhīras, Arbudas, Mālavas, etc. The Viṣṇupurāṇa (II, 3) has Śūrābhīrāḥ for what obviously should be Śūdrābhīrāḥ. In the Bhāgavatapurāṇa (XII, 1, 36) also we have:

'Saurāṣṭrāvaityabhīrāśca Śūdrā Arbuda-mālavāḥ.'

¹ Salyaparvan, 2119.

² Mbh., IX, 37, 1: 'Sūdrābhīrān prati dveṣād yatra naṣṭā Sarasvatī'.

³ Cal. Ed., 12, 837.

⁴ M. Langolis reads 'Śūrābhīrāḥ', evidently following the Viṣṇu, Bhāgavata, and some other Purāṇas. See his translation of the Harivaṃśa, Vol. II, p. 401; also Goldstücker's Dictionary, p. 299.

^{5 19, 17: &#}x27;Tathāparāntyāḥ Saurāṣṭrāḥ Śūdrābhīrāstathārbudāḥ Mārukā Mālavāścaiva Pāriyātranivāsinah.'

CHAPTER LXIV

THE LATAS

The name of the Latas as a people must have been known as early as the beginning of the Christian era, if not earlier, and their country Lata or Lata-visaya was well known in Indian history till as late as the seventh and eighth centuries. It is curious, however, that neither the country nor its people is ever mentioned in any of

the earlier Purānas, or even in the Epics.

The earliest definite mention of the country seems to have been made by Ptolemy. According to his description of India within the Ganges, I,ārike lay to the east of Indo-Skythia along the sea-coast.¹ I,āṭadeśa in its Prākrit form Lārdeśa (the country of Lār) seems to have been a very early name for the territory of Gujrat and Northern Konkon,² and McCrindle conjectured that Lārike 'may therefore be a formation from Lār with the Greek termination ike appended'.³ The name Lārdeśa probably survived the Hindu period, 'for the sea to the west of that coast was in the early Muhammadan time called the sea of Lār, and the language spoken on its shores was called by Mas'ūdi, Lāri'.⁴

In Ptolemy's Lārike lay the mouth of the river Mōphis, which is identical with the Mahī, a village named Pakidare which is difficult to identify, and the cape Maleo which 'must have been a projection of the land somewhere between the mouth of the Mahī and that of the Narmadā, but nearer to the former if Ptolemy's indication be correct'.⁵

The two great cities of Barygaza and Ozene were also within the political division of Lārike. In Ptolemy's Gulf of Barygaza lay Kamane, doubtless identical with Kamonone of the *Periplus* which places it to the south of the Narmadā estuary, while Ptolemy locates it to the north; Nausaripa, which is the same as modern Nausārī on the coast and Sanskrit Navasārikā, and finally Poulipoula, which in Yule's map is located at modern Sanjam on the coast south from Nausārī. Barygaza itself is the same as Sanskrit Bhrgukṣetra or Bhrgukaccha, Pāli Bharukaccha, modern Broach; while Ozene, of course, is Ujjayinī or Ujjain.

¹ McCrindle, Ptolemy's Ancient India, pp. 38, 152-3.

Marco Polo, Vol. II, p. 302 n. (Yule).
 Ibid., p. 153; Marco Polo, II, p. 353 n.

³ McCrindle, p. 38.

⁵ McCrindle's *Ptolemy*, p. 38.

The Ceylonese chronicles (Dīpavaṃsa and Mahāvaṃsa) refer to the country of Lāļa in connection with the first Aryan migration to Ceylon, led by Prince Vijaya. Attempts have been made to identify Lāļa both with Lāṭa or Lāḍa in Gujrat, and Rāḍha in Bengal, and both countries claim the honour of the first Aryanization of Ceylon. Prince Vijaya is described in the chronicles as having been the greatgrandson of a princess of Vaṅga; hence one school of scholars mainly depending on historical evidence proposes to equate Lāļa with Rāḍha, while the other school finds Lāļa to be philologically more closely akin to Lāṭa or Lāḍa. It is not impossible that the tradition of two different streams of immigration came to be knit together in the story of Vijaya, as Dr. Barnett thinks.¹

In the days of the early Imperial Guptas, the Lāṭa country came to be formed into an administrative province as Lāṭa-viṣaya, along with Tripuri-viṣaya, Arikiṇa-viṣaya, Antarvedi-viṣaya, Vālavī-viṣaya, Gayā-viṣaya, etc. These viṣayas or pradeśas seem to have been subordinate to the larger administrative division, called bhukti.

It is likely that the Lata country was the same as the Lateśvara country mentioned in one or two early Gurjara and Rastrakūta records. In the Baroda Copperplate Inscription (verse 11) the capital of the kingdom of Latesvara is said to have been at Elapur. The inscription also gives the genealogy of the kings of Latesyara. K. M. Munshi, in his work 'Gujarāta and its literature', gives us some information about Lata. He says: 'From about c. A.C. 150, the tract between Khambhāta (Cambay) and Narmadā acquired the name of Lata which, thereafter, came to include the country south of the Narmadā up to the Damanagangā. Under the Chalukyas of Anahilavāda Pātana (A.C. 961), the name Lāṭa was gradually displaced by the name Gurjara Bhūmi The whole of Lata up to Damanagangā became part of Gujarāta in c. A.C. 1400. '2 Lāta, then, was evidently the equivalent of South Gujarāta. Lassen, however, identifies Lārike with Sanskrit Rāstrika,⁸ in its Prakrit form Lātika, which is easily equated with Lata, though the equation of Rastrika and Latika is not convincing enough.

Lāṭa is mentioned twice in Vātsyāyana's Kāmasūtra.⁴ Vātsyāyana does not give any clue as to location of the country, but contents himself with describing the characteristics of the men and women respectively. Lāta is also referred to by the author of

4 Ibid., pp. 103 and 126.

¹ J.A.S.B., Vol. XVIII, 1922, No. 7.

² Ibid., pp. 2-3. See also ibid., p. 20 n., p. 36.
8 See chapter on Rāṣṭrikas. It may be that Rāṣṭrika formed the northern part of Gujarat, and Lāta, the southern.

Kuvalayamālā (c. 779 A.D.). The inhabitants of Lāṭa are distinguished from those of Gurjara, the Lāṭa people appearing as pleasure-loving and humorous, and those of the north as sterner and of stronger build. Lāṭa appears to have possessed distinctive literary traits. A kind of style, favoured by the authors of Lāṭa, acquired the name of Lāṭā. Rājaśekhara represents the people of Lāṭa as preferring Prākrit to Sanskrit.

CHAPTER LXV

THE SURPARAKAS

The Śūrpārakas were evidently the people of Śūrpāraka. The Mārkaṇḍeya list (LVII, 49) reads Sūryārakas which is evidently a mistake, but all the Purāṇas agree in placing them in the west where lived the celebrated sage Rāma Jāmadagnya (Mbh., Vana P., LXXXV, 8185). But the Mahābhārata also locates them in the south (Sabhā P., XXX, 1169; Vana P., LXXXVIII, 8337) because it bordered on the southern sea in the western region (Sānti P., XLIX, 1778-82). The region situated near Prabhāsa (Vana P., CXVIII, 10221-7) included the country around the mouth of the Narmadā (Anuśāsana P., XXV, 1736). It was the sage Rāma Jāmadagnya who is credited with having built the city of Śūrpāraka (Harivaṃśa, XCVI, 50).

Sūrpāraka is mentioned in one of the inscriptions of Saka Usavadāta and is undoubtedly the same as Suppāraka of Pāli literature where it is described as a great sea-coast emporium

identified with Sopārā of early Greek geographers.

CHAPTER LXVI

THE AUDUMBARAS

The Audumbaras seem to have been a minor oligarchical or republican tribe. They are mentioned in the Sabhāparvan of the Mahābhārata (II, 1869), where they are located in the Madhyadeśa (midland district). The Harivaṃśa refers to certain ascetics, descendants of Viśvāmitra, as Audumbaras, but it is difficult to determine their exact relation with the tribe of the Sabhāparvan.

The Purāṇas ¹ mention a people called the Udumbaras, along with the Kāpiṅgalas, Kuruvāhyas and Gajāhvayas. The lastnamed people were connected with Hastināpura, the Kuru capital, and the Kuruvāhyas must also have had some connection with the famous Kuru people. It is, therefore, reasonable to assume that the Udumbaras (presumably identical with the Audumbaras) occupied a district contiguous with, or not far from, the Kuru country. Both Lassen (Ind. Art. map) and Cunningham (Arch. Surv. Rep., XIV, 115 and 135) seem to locate the Udumbaras somewhere in Cutch.

The Harivamśa ² mentions a river Udumbaravatī in the south, while the Mañjuśrīmūlakalpa ³ refers to a city named Udumbarapura

in the Magadhajanapada.

The Audumbaras are also known from coins which come chiefly from the Kangra District of the Punjab, and which belong to about the eighteenth century A.D.⁴

² CLXVIII, 9511.

4 Smith, Cat. of Coins, pp. 160-1.

¹ See, e.g. Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa, LVIII, 9.

³ Ganapati Sāstrī's Ed., p. 633. 'Māgadham janapadam prāpya pure Udumbarāhvaye'.

CHAPTER LXVII

THE KĀKAS, KHARAPARIKAS AND SANAKĀNIKAS

These three tribal peoples are referred to in the Allahabad Pillar Inscription of Samudragupta, along with the Mālavas, Ārjunāyanas, Yaudheyas, Madrakas, Ābhīras and Prārjunas. Recent researches have ascertained that the better-known among these tribes—i.e. the Mālavas, Yaudheyas, Madras and Ābhīras—inhabited the regions on the western, north-western and south-western fringe of Āryāvarta proper; and it is likely that the Kākas, Kharaparikas and Sanakānikas also occupied this region.

So far as is known, there is no other mention of the Sanakānikas, either in literature or in any other epigraphic record except the Udayagiri Cave Inscription of G.E. 82 which mentions a Mahārāja of the Sanakānika tribe. Udayagiri is just two miles to the north-

west of Bhilsa, ancient Vidiśā.

The name Kharaparika does not occur elsewhere in inscriptions or literature; but Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar ¹ finds a probable identification of the tribe with Kharpara mentioned in the Bāṭihāgarh Inscription of the Damoh District of the Central Provinces. The Mārkaṇḍcya Purāṇa (LVIII, 47) mentions a tribe called Kharasāgara-rāśīs, ² along with the Gandhāras and the Yaudheyas; and the Matsyapurāṇa (CXXI, 56) refers to a country named Kharapatha, watered by the river Nalinī. It is difficult to say whether this people Khara-sāgara-rāśī, and country Kharapatha, had anything to do with the Kharaparikas.

The Kākas are mentioned in the Mahābhārata (VI, 9, 64) where they are associated with the Vidarbhas who were a well-known people occupying tracts of territory in what is now known as the Central Provinces. The territory of the Kākas is sometimes identified with Kākūpur near Bithur, while Smith suggests an

identification with Kākanāda near Sāñcī.5

¹ I.H.Q., I, p. 258; E.P., XII, p. 46, v. 5.
² A variant reading is 'Svarasāgararāṣī'.

³ Var. reading Kāncika.

⁴ Bombay Gazetteer.

⁵ J.R.A.S., 1897, pp. 892-9.

CHAPTER LXVIII

THE MATSYAS

The Matsyas appear to have been one of the prominent Ksatriva tribes that made up the Vedic Aryan people in the earliest period of their residence in India. We read in a hymn of the Rgveda (VII. 18, 6) that the Matsyas were attacked by Turvasa, a famous king, in order to extract from them the wealth which he required for the performance of a sacrifice. We observe that the Matsyas were regarded as a wealthy people, their riches most probably consisting of cows which were much in demand for the performance of lengthy and elaborate sacrifices. It is well known that in Epic times the Matsyas were very rich in this wealth of cows, for which the Trigarttas and the Kurus led predatory expeditions against them. In the Rigvedic passage referred to above, the word 'Matsya' in the text has been taken by some scholars to mean 'fish' (its original Sāyana gives both meanings, and the authors of the meaning). Vedic Index (Vol. II, p. 121) also think both possible. context, however, Matsya clearly refers to the people. There is. moreover, no doubt that cattle made up the wealth here intended. for the verse following the one in question states clearly that Indra recovered the cows (gavyā) from the Tritsu plunderers (just as Indra's son, Arjuna, recovered the cattle plundered by the Kurus as described in the Mahūbhārata). Further, other tribes of Western India, e.g. the Druhyus and the Bhrgus, are mentioned in the verse (VII, 18, 7) side by side with the Matsyas. So it is evident that the latter is here also a tribal name.

The question arises whether the name Matsya has anything to do with totemism, as suggested by Prof. Macdonell in his *Vedic Mythology*. He says: 'There are possibly in the *Rgveda* some survivals of totemism, or the belief in the descent of the human race or of individual tribes or families from animals or plants', and he refers to the Matsyas as an illustration of his statement (*Vedic Mythology*, p. 153). But, as Prof. A. Berriedale Keith points out, 'mere animal names prove little as to totemism, which is not demonstrated for any Aryan stock'. The myth about the birth of a king called Matsya from the womb of a fish along with Matsyagandhā Satyavatī, as related in the *Mahābhārata* (*Adiparvan*,

¹ Aitareya Āraṇyaka (Anecdota Oxoniensia), p. 200, f.n., a.

Chap. 63) ¹ cannot be proved to have any connection with the Matsya people. Nor is there anything in the account of the Matsyas to show that the fish was an object of worship among them, or was ever regarded with any special veneration. The fish incarnation of Visnu has nothing specifically to do with the Matsya people. There is, in fact, no valid reason for thinking that such Indo-Aryan tribal names as *Matsya* (fish), *Aja* (goat), and *Vatsa* (calf) have anything to do with totemism.

Coming down to the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,² we find that a Matsya king, Dhvasan Dvaitavana, is mentioned among the great monarchs of ancient times who acquired renown among the Vedic Aryan people owing to their performance of the horse sacrifice. We shall have occasion to mention this king again in connection with the lake to which he gave his name.

In the Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad,³ the Matsyas are mentioned along with other tribes, viz. the Uśīnaras, Kuru-Pañcālas, and Kāśī-Videhas. In the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, they are connected with the Śālvas, a Kṣatriya tribe in their neighbourhood, and mentioned along with other well-known Kṣatriya tribes of the Vedic period, such as the Kuru-Pañcālas, Aṅga-Magadhas, Kāśī-Kośalas and Vaśa-Uśīnaras.⁴ The relation of the Matsyas with the Śālvas is also attested by the Mahābhārata. King Suśarmā of the Trigarttas, addressing Duryodhana, says: 'We have been defeated more than once by the Matsyas and Śālvas (Matsya-Śālveyakaih).' Evidently the Śālvas were neighbours of the Matsyas and their allies in Vedic and Epic times. In the Padmapurāṇa (Chap. 3) and the Viṣṇu-dharmottara Mahāpurāṇa (Chap. 9), Matsya is mentioned as one of the Janapadas of Bhāratavarṣa.

In later times, we find the Matsyas associated with the Cedis and the Śūrasenas. Among the kings who brought about the ruin of their own tribes and families, the Mahābhārata (Vol. 74, 16) mentions a King Sahaja who was instrumental in causing the destruction of the Cedi-Matsyas. In the Paurāṇic age the Matsyas are spoken of along with the Śūrasenas and the Cambridge History of India observes that the two peoples are constantly associated, and may possibly have been united under one king. In the Bhīṣma-parvan of the Mahābhārata, the Cedi-Matsya-Karūṣas are grouped together in one passage, the Cedi-Matsyas in another, and the Cedi-

¹ The Vāyupurāṇa (Chap. 99) also refers to this King Matsya born of Uparicara Vasu and a fish.

<sup>Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, XIII, 5, 4, 9; S.B.E., Vol. XI,IV, p. 398.
Kauṣitaki Up., IV, I. Trsl. by Max Müller, S.B.E., Vol. I, p. 300.</sup>

Gopatha Brāhmana, I, 2, 9; Bibliotheca Indica Series, ed. Dr. R. L. Mitra, p. 30. Mbh., Virātaparvan, Chap. 30, pp. 1-2.

Matsya-Karūṣas in another.¹ Elsewhere in the *Mahābhārata*, in the description of the Kurukṣetra battle, the Cedi-Pañcāla-Karūṣa-Matsyas,² Matsya-Pañcāla-Cedis,³ Cedi-Karūṣa-Matsyas,⁴ and Cedi-

Matsyas 5 respectively are grouped together.

In the *Manusaṃhitā* we read: 'The plains of the Kurus, the (country of the) Matsyas, Pañcālas and Śūrasenakas, these (form) indeed, the country of the Brahmarshis (Brahman sages) which ranks immediately after Brahmāvarta. From a Brāhman born in that country let all men on earth learn their several usages.' From this passage it appears that the Matsyas were regarded by the Indians as belonging to the most orthodox followers of Brahmanism in ancient times. Manu also prescribes, when laying down rules for the marshalling of troops on the battle-field, that '(Men born in) Kurukṣetra, Matsyas, Pañcālas, and those born in Śūrasena, let him (i.e. the king or leader) cause to fight in the van of the battle, as well as (others who are) tall and light'. Apparently the Matsyas occupied a pre-eminent position both because of the purity of their conduct and customs, and through their bravery and prowess on the field of battle.

In the Kiṣkindhyā Kāṇḍa of the Rāmāyaṇa, we read that when Sugrīva sent his monkey host to search for Sītā, those under Aṅgada made their enquiries throughout the countries of the Matsyas and the Kaliṅgas, two peoples situated 'at the two extremities of India'. When speaking ⁸ about the country of the Sūrasenas and the Kurus and Bharatas who were the immediate neighbours of the Matsyas, Sūgrīva does not refer to the Matsyas at all, although as we have seen, the Sūrasenas and Matsyas were constantly associated in the Paurāṇic age. This omission suggests that at the time of the Rāmāyaṇa the Matsyas were not regarded as an important people: perhaps they had lost the importance which they had acquired in the Vedic age.

Among references to Matsya in the Buddhist literature, we may mention Anguttara Nikāya (I, p. 213; IV, pp. 252, 256, 260), where Matsya is named as one of the Mahājanapadas of India. There is a reference to the Matsyas or Macchas (together with the Kāśīs and Śūrasenas) in the Janavasabha Suttanta of the Dīgha Nikāya in connection with the account of the Buddha's stay in Nādika. In the Vidhurapaṇḍita Jātaka we read that the Macchas witnessed the dice-play of the king of the Kurus with the Yakkha Punnaka. 10

¹ See Bhīşmaparvan, Chap. 9; Chap. 52, 9; Chap. 54, 8.

Mbh., Vangavāsi Edn., 59, 129.
 Ibid., VIII, 30, 27, 29.
 Ibid., VIII, 78, 25.

⁶ Manusamhitā, II, 19-20; S.B.E., Vol. XXV, pp. 32-3.

 ⁷ Ibid., VII, 193; S.B.E., Vol. XXV, p. 247.
 8 Kişkindhyā Kāṇḍa, 43, 11.
 9 Dīgha Nikāya, Vol. II, p. 200.
 10 Jātaka (Fausböll), Vol. VI, pp. 280 foll.

The Satapatha Brāhmana contains a reference to a Matsva king. Dhyasan Dyaitayana, who appears to have given his name to a lake, Dvaitavana. In the Mahābhārata, we find mention of an extensive forest named Dyaitavana where the Pandavas passed a large portion of their exile. In the Virāṭaparvan (IV, 5, 4-5), we are told that the Pāndavas went to the Matsya capital (Virāta) from lake Dvaitavana. leaving the Daśārnas to the South and the Pañcālas to the North. passing through the country of the Yakrllomas and Surasenas. and entering the Matsya dominion from the forest. Elsewhere in the same Parvan (III, 24), a lake Dvaitavana is mentioned as existing in the Dvaitavana forest (which was supposed to be situated around the Sarasvatī), and this lake appears to have been close to the Sarasvatī (III, 177). Evidently both the lake and the forest were named after Dhyasan Dyaitayana, and were included in the Matsva dominions in early times. From the Mahābhārata account, it appears that the forest was outside the Matsya country, though not very far from it.

We have seen that according to Manu the Matsya country formed a part of the Brahmarṣi-deśa, the country of the holy sages which, as Rapson points out, included the eastern half of the State of Patiala and of the Delhi division of the Punjab, the Alwar State and adjacent territory in Rajputana, the region which lies between the Ganges and the Jumna, and the Muttra District in the United Provinces. In this land of the Brahmarṣis, as Cunningham shows, 'In ancient times the whole of the country lying between the Arabali hills of Alwar and the river Jumna was divided between Matsya on the W. and Sūrasena on the E., with Daśārṇa on the S. and S.E. border. Matsya then included the whole of the present Alwar territory, with portions of Jaypur and Bharatpur. Vairāṭ and Māchāri were both in Matsyadeśa... To the E. were the Pañcālas...'2

In later times the Matsya country appears to have been known also as Virāṭa or Vairāṭa. Hsüan Tsang speaks of it as Vairāṭa, and Cunningham points out on his authority that in the seventh century A.D. the kingdom of Vairāṭa was 3,000 li or 500 miles in circuit. It was famous for its sheep and oxen, but produced few fruits or flowers. This is still the case with Jaypur to the S. of Vairāṭa, which furnishes most of the sheep required for the cities of Delhi and Agra, and their English garrisons. Vairāṭa, therefore, may have included the greater part of the present State of Jaypur. Its precise boundaries cannot be determined; but they may be fixed approximately as extending on the north from Jhunjun to Kot Kāsim, 70 miles; on the west from Jhunjun to Ajmer, 120 miles;

¹ Ancient India, pp. 50-1.

² Cunningham's Report, Archaeological Survey of India, Vol. 20, p. 2.

on the south from Ajmer to the junction of the Banās and Chambal, 150 miles; and on the east from the junction to Kot Kāsim, 150 miles;

or altogether 490 miles.1

The capital of the country is generally called Viratanagara in the Virātaparvan and elsewhere in the Mahābhārata2; but occasionally it is called Matsyanagara,3 and also sometimes Matsyasyanagara.4 Evidently it was this Virātanagara which afterwards became known as Vairāt. This city was the royal seat of the Epic king Virāta. the friend of the Pandavas. The fourth book of the Mahābhārata refers to an attempt made by the Trigarttas to plunder the cows of Virāta. Virāta heard that the Trigarttas were taking away thousands of his kine. He thereupon collected his army; kings and princes put on their armour. Dreadful, infuriated elephants appeared like rain-bearing clouds, and were driven to battle by trained and skilled The leading heroes of Matsya, who followed their king, had 8,000 chariots, 1,000 elephants, and 60,000 horses. King Virāta was taken captive by the Trigarttas, but was rescued by Bhīma, the second Pāṇḍava. The period of exile of the Pāṇḍava brothers concluded with a year's living incognito in the kingdom of They then disclosed their identity, and a marriage between Abhimanyu, son of Arjuna, and Uttarā, daughter of King Virāta, was arranged and celebrated with great pomp.

So much for the traditional history of Virāṭa and his capital. The earliest historical mention of Vairāṭ is that of the Chinese pilgrim Hsūan Tsang, in 634 A.D. According to him, the capital was 14 or 15 li, or 2½ miles, in circuit, corresponding almost exactly with the size of the ancient mound on which the present town is built. The people were brave and bold and their king, who was of the race of Fei-she (either a Vaisya or a Bais Rajput), was famous

for his courage and skill in war.7

We next hear of Vairāṭ during the reign of Mahmud of Ghazni, who invaded the country in A.D. 1009. The Matsya king submitted to Mahmud, but his country was again invaded in A.D. 1014, and Vairāṭ taken and plundered by Amir Ali who found an ancient stone inscription at Nārāyaṇ, which was said to record that the temple of Nārāyaṇ had been built 40,000 years previously. As this inscription is also mentioned by the contemporary historian Otbi, we may accept the fact of the discovery of a stone record in characters so ancient that the Brahmins of that day were unable to read them.

Cunningham, Ancient Geography, pp. 344-5.

² Mbh., IV, 6, 35; IV, 13, 3. ³ Ibid., IV, 13, 1. ⁴ Ibid., IV, 14, 1. ⁵ M. N. Dutt, Mahābhārata, Virāṭaparvan, Chap. XXXI: also Chap. X, and Chap. XXII. ⁶ Ibid., Chap. LXXII.

⁷ Cunningham, Ancient Geography, p. 343.

Cunningham thought it highly probable that this was the famous inscription of Aśoka that was afterwards discovered by Major Burt on the top of a hill at Vairāt.¹

The present town of Vairāṭ is situated in the midst of a circular valley surrounded by low bare bed hills, which have all along been famous for their copper mines. It is 105 miles to the south-west of Delhi, and 41 miles to the north of Jaypur. The soil is generally good, and the trees, especially the tamarinds, are very fine and abundant. Vairāṭ is situated on a mound of ruins, about one mile in length by half a mile in breadth, or upwards of 2½ miles in circuit, of which the present town does not occupy more than one-fourth. The old city Vairāṭnagara is said to have been quite deserted for several centuries until it was repeopled about 350 years ago, most probably during the reign of Akbar. The town was certainly in existence in Akbar's time, as it is mentioned by Abul Fazl in the Avin-i-Akbari as possessing very profitable copper mines.²

Another city of King Virāṭa's kingdom was Upaplavya, whither, according to the *Mahābhārata* account, the Pāṇḍavas transferred themselves (from Virāṭa) on completion of their exile.³ This city of Upaplavya is also mentioned in other places. It was hither that Sañjaya, the messenger of the Kurus, was sent by Dhṛtarāṣṭra (*Mbh.*, V, 22, I). Upaplavya does not appear to have been a capital of the Matsyas as asserted in the *Cambridge History of India* (p. 316), but only one of the towns in the Matsya country. The commentator on the *Mahābhārata*, Nīlakaṇṭha, explains that Upaplavya was the name of 'another (or some) city near Virāṭanagara' ⁴; but its exact site is uncertain.

Dr. Ray Chaudhuri points out that Matsya is not mentioned by Kautilya as a state having the *saṃgha* form of government. Therefore the probability is that the monarchical constitution lasted throughout the period of Matsya's independence. The kingdom was probably annexed at one time by the neighbouring kingdom of Cedi, and finally absorbed into the Magadhan empire.⁵

¹ Cunningham, Ancient Geography, pp. 343-4.

² *Ibid.*, p. 342.

^{3 &}quot;Tatustrayodaśe varse nivrtte pańcupāndavāh Upaplavyam Virāţasya samapadyanta sarvaśah" (Mbh., IV, 72, 14).

⁴ Nīlakantha on the Mbh., IV, 72, 14: 'Upalavyam Virāṭanagarasamīpastha-nagarāntaram'.

⁵ H. C. Ray Chaudhuri, *Political History of Ancient India*, 4th Ed., p. 116. For further references to Matsya, see, e.g. Smith's *Early History of India*, 4th Ed., p. 413 and R. D. Banerjee, *Vāngālār Itihāsa*, p. 158.

CHAPTER LXIX

THE RAMATHAS

The Ramathas seem also to have been a northern people living not far from the Kulūtas. The Vāyupurāna mentions a people named Ramatas (XLV, 117), while the Matsyapurāna refers to a people named Rāmathas (CXIII, 42), both no doubt meaning the one and the same people, the Ramathas. The Kūrmapurāņa (XLVII, 41) reads Rāmas instead and the Mārkandeya Mātharas (LVII, 37). The Brhatsamhitā places them in the western division of India along with the Pañcanadas, while the Vāyuburāna in the reference cited above locates them in northern division along with the Kulindas.

The Brhatsamhita contention that the Ramathas were a western people is upheld by the Mahābhārata (Sabhāparvan, XXXI, Vanaparvan, LI, 1991; Sāntiparvan, LXV, 2430). Bhīsmabarvan mentions a people called Ramanas who also may be the same people as the Ramathas (IX, 374).

In the same context of the introduction of the Bālabhārata or Pracandapāndava of Rājaśekhara where we find Mahipāla of the Pratihara dynasty is credited with having inflicted a defeat on the Kulūtas, we find also the Ramathas having shared the same fate at the hands of the Pratihāra king. This will be evident from the follow-

ing passage:—

'Namita-Murala-maulih Þākalo Mēkalānām rana-Kalita-Kalingāh keli-tat Kēral-ēndoh. Ajani-jita-Kuliītah Kuntalānām, kuthārah, hatha-hrta-Ramatha Śrīh Śrī Mahīpāladevah Tena Raghuvamśa - muktāmaninācaĀryāvartamahārājādhirājena. Nirbhayanarendra-nandanenādhikrtāh Sabhāsadah sarvān . . . etc.'

(Nirnayasāgar Press Ed., I, 7-8.)

CHAPTER LXX

THE PĀRADAS

The Pāradas, like the Barbaras and Daradas, seem to have been a barbarous hill tribe and are associated in the Puranic and Epic tradition with similar rude tribes of the North (e.g. Mbh., Sabhāparvan, L. 1832; LI, 1869; Dronaparvan, CXXI, 4819). In the Sabhāparvan of the Mahābhārata, they are associated with the Kulindas and Tanganas (II, 1858-9). They are mentioned in the Vāyupurāna (Chap. 88) as well as in the Harivamsa (I, 14). The Markandeya Purāna at one place (LVII, 37) locates them along with the Kalingas, the Hārabhūsikas, Mātharas (Ramathas), etc., while at another place (LVIII, 31), with the Sudras, the Barbaras, the Kirātas the Pandyas, the Parasavas, etc. In the Sabhabarvan of the Mahābhārata (LI, 1858-9), the Pāradas are said to have dwelt on the river Salioda along with the Khasas and the Tanganas. collation of Epic and Puranic tradition referred to above shows that the tribe is found mentioned in a list of barbarous and rude tribes with the Sakas, Yavanas, Kambojas, Pahlavas, Khasas, Māhīsikas, Colas, Keralas, etc. The Harivamśa states (XIII, 763-4; XIV, 775-83) that King Sagara degraded them and ordered them to have their hair-locks long and dishevelled; according to the same authority they were mlecchas and dasyus. They also find mention in Manusmrti where it is said that they were originally Ksatriyas, but were degraded owing to extinction of sacred rites, etc. (X, 43-4). At least one reference in the Great Epic connects the people with the Ābhiras (Sabhāparvan, L, 1832).

The Rock Edicts of Asoka give a list of territories that were occupied by vassal tribes; among them figures a tribe named Palidas along with the Andhras, Bhojas and Rathikas. The Palidas have often been identified with the Pulindas, but Hultzsch does not accept this identification in view of the fact that the Kālsi and Girnar versions of the relevant portion of the Edicts have the variants Pālada and Pārimda. H. C. Ray Chaudhuri thinks that these variants 'remind us of the Pāradas'. If that be so, then the association of the Pāradas with the Andhras in Asokan inscriptions would suggest 'that in the Maurya period they may have been in the Deccan. But the matter must be regarded as not definitely settled'.

According to ancient Indian historical tradition as contained in the Epics and the Purāṇas, the Pāradas were one of the allies along with others, namely, the Śakas, the Kambojas, the Yavanas and the Pahlavas, of the Haihaya-Tālajanghas that drove Bāhu, the eighth king in descent from Hariścandra, from his throne (Pargiter, A.I.H.T., pp. 206, 268 and f.n.). Pargiter places all these tribes in the north-west.

CHAPTER LXXI

THE BHOJAS

The Bhojas were a very ancient tribe, who attained to considerable eminence as early as the period represented by the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa. The term Bhoja is mentioned even in the Rgveda (III, 53, 7) though many scholars do not consider it to be a tribal name there, and Sāyaṇa also explains it otherwise. According to the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, the Bhojas were a southern people, a ruling tribe whose princes held the Satvats in subjection. The Satapatha Brāhmaṇa (XIII, 5, 4, 21) seems to imply that the Satvats were located near the Gaṅgā and Vamunā, which was the realm of the Bharatas, for the defeat by Bharata of the Satvats, and his taking away of the horse which they had prepared for an Aśvamedha sacrifice are here referred to. It is likely, therefore, that the Bhojas had spread over Central and Southern India in very early times.

According to the Purāṇas,³ the Bhojas and the Satvats were allied tribes, both belonging to the Yadu-vaṃśa which dwelt at Mathurā (the capital of the Śūrasenas, q.v.) on the banks of the Yamunā. The Viṣṇupurāṇa ⁴ alludes to a branch of the Satvats as Bhojas, and by the Epic period at least the Bhojas and Satvats were indistinguishable.

In the *Mahābhārata*, the Bhojas are declared to have been descended from Druhyu, the third son of Yayāti, the great ancestor of the Kuru-Pāṇḍavas. When King Yayāti proposed to have Druhyu's youth transferred to himself, and was unceremoniously refused, he cursed his son, saying that he would be a king only in name. 'You shall rule over a region where there will be no roads, no passages for either horses or horse-drawn excellent chariots, nor for elephants, asses, goats, bullocks, palanquins and other good vehicles, where the only means of locomotion will be rafts and floats. In such a place will you have to live, and with all your family you will get the designation of Bhoja,—and there will not be a Rājā amongst you.⁵ Druhyu's children were the Bhojas.⁶

¹ VIII, 14: 'Dakşinasyām diśi ye ke ca Satvatām rājāno Bhaujyāyaiva te' bhişiñcyante Bhojetyenānabhişiktān-ācakşata.'

² Satapatha Brāhmana, XIII, 5, 4, 11.

³ Matsyapurāṇa, Chap. 43, p. 48; Chap. 44, pp. 46-8; Vāyupurāṇa, Chap. 94, p. 52; Chap. 95, p. 18; Chap. 96, pp. 1-2; Viṣṇupurāṇa, IV, 13, 1-6.

IV, 13, 1-61.
 Mahāhhārata, Ādiparvan, Chap. 84, pp. 20-2; Vangavāsī Ed.

⁶ Ibid., Chap. 85, verse 34.

Though the Bhojas are condemned in the above passage, yet there appear to have been very cordial relations between them and the Pauravas, the children of Puru, Yayati's favourite son, from whom the Kurus and Pandavas traced their descent. Thus we find that when Arjuna in the course of his expedition of pilgrimage went to Dyārakā, the Bhojas and their allied tribes, the Vrsnis and Andhakas, hurried to have a look at the great Pandava hero as he marched along the road. Ariuna was welcomed and honoured by the young men of his own age among the Bhojas, Vṛṣṇis and Andhakas, and went to take up his residence in the house of Krsna, who evidently belonged to these people. We then meet with an account of festivities celebrated by the Bhoja-Vrsni-Andhakas on the hill of Mahendra.2 When the report of the abduction of Subhadra, Krsna's sister, was proclaimed at the assembly of the allied tribes, then the Bhojas along with the Vrsnis and Andhakas took up arms to recover the princess from the clutches of her abductor.3 Again we read that Krsna, accompanied by a host of Bhoja-Vrsni-Andhakas, paid a visit to Indraprastha when Arjuna returned there after his exile: and we are further told that Krsna paid a formal visit to the Pandava king, attended by Vrsnis, Andhakas and Bhojas.4

It appears from many passages in the Mahābhārata that the Bhojas formed a confederacy for offensive and defensive purposes with the Vrsnis, Andhakas, and also the Yadavas. They were evidently descended from the same main stock, and were therefore bound together by consanguinity as well as by mutual interest. Besides the references given above, we may mention Vanaparvan, Chap. 120, where the prominent warriors of the Vrsnis, Bhojas and Andhakas are mentioned together; and Virātaparvan, Chap. 72 and Udyogaparvan, Chap. 7, where we are told that a large crowd of Vrsnis, Andhakas and Bhojas followed Krsna to Dvārakā. When Krsna returned to Dyaraka after the Kuruksetra war was over, the Bhojas, Vrsnis and Andhakas received him with honour.⁶ In the Mausalaparvan, where the extermination of the relatives and followers of Krsna by internecine quarrel is described, we have a mention of the Bhojas who along with the Vrsnis and Andhakas took part in that mutually destructive combat.

In the Sabhāparvan, we find Kṛṣṇa telling Yudhiṣṭhira of the oppressive domination of Jarāsandha, king of Magadha. In this

¹ Ādiparvan, Chap. 218, verses 18-21.

² Ibid., Chap. 219, verses 2ff.

³ Ibid., Chap. 220, verses 12 and 32.

⁴ Ibid., Chap. 221, verses 33 and 38. 5 See also Udyogaparvan, Chap. 28.

⁶ Mahābhārata, Aśvamedhaparvan, Chap. 59.

connection he says that the Bhojas descended from Vayāti had propagated and acquired a high position for themselves, but had been robbed of it by the confederacy under the suzerainty of Jarāsandha.¹ In a later verse (v. 25) of the same chapter, we are told that the eighteen families of the Bhojas that lived in the Udīcya or northern country had, from fear of Jarāsandha, been forced to take refuge far in the west. Kṛṣṇa is also represented as saying that the aged Bhoja kings, being oppressed by Kaṃsa who was in alliance with Jarāsandha, had sought refuge with him (Kṛṣṇa), in order to rescue their relatives; and it appears that the connection between the Vṛṣṇis and the Bhojas was cemented by the marriage of Āhuka's daughter with Akrura.²

We gather, then, that at this time the Bhojas had spread far and wide over India; they were found in the west, in the Madhyadeśa, and in the south, for King Bhīṣmaka, father of Rukmiṇī and fatherin-law of Kṛṣṇa, is called a Bhoja. Thus Kṛṣṇa says, 'That mighty king of the Bhojas, Bhīṣmaka... who governs a fourth part of the world, who has conquered by his learning the Pāṇḍyas and Krathakauśikas... has (also) become a servitor to the king of Magadha (Jarāṣandha). We are his relatives... yet he does not at all regard us. He is always doing us ill. Without knowing his own strength and the dignity of the race to which he belongs, Bhīṣmaka has placed himself under Jarāṣandha's shelter, only seeing his blazing fame.'3

We have an indication of the position of this Bhoja king Bhīṣmaka in a later chapter of the Sabhāparvan, where we are told that Sahadeva, the youngest of the Pāṇḍava brothers, when on his expedition of conquest, proceeded towards Bhojakaṭa, the capital of the Bhojas under Bhīṣmaka, after conquering Avanti, i.e. Malwa in Central India. Later in the same chapter we read that after subjugating the king of Surāṣṭra or Kathiawar, Sahadeva sent ambassadors to Bhīṣmaka, the ruler of Bhoja-kaṭa, and also to his son Rukmin (who was probably associated with him in the government of the country); and we are told that Bhīṣmaka and his son respected the mandate of Sahadeva out of consideration for Kṛṣṇa.

The following story is told about the foundation of Bhojakata. When Kṛṣṇa carried away Rukmin's sister by force from his father's capital, Kuṇḍinapura, Rukmin swore that he would not return home without defeating the abductor of his sister. As fate would have it, Rukmin was worsted in the fight that followed and true to his oath,

¹ Sabhāparvan, Chap. 14.

⁸ Ibid., Chap. 14, verses 21-4.

⁵ Ibid., Chap. 31, verses 62-4.

² Ibid., Chap. 14, verses 32-3.4 Ibid., Chap. 31, verses 10-11.

he never returned to Kuṇḍinapura, but built a new city of the Bhojas on the site of the battle-field, and called it Bhojakata.¹

Bhojakaṭa is interpreted by Vincent Smith as 'Castle of the Bhojas'. He says that the name 'implies that the province was named after a castle formerly held by the Bhojas...' ² It is alluded to in the Chammak grant of the Vākāṭaka King Pravarasena II, which 'makes it clear that the Bhojakaṭa territory included the Ilichpur district in Berar or Vidarbha'. Bhojakaṭa has been identified with Bhat-kuli in the Amraoti district of Berar. It is not improbable that the Bhojas had some relation with Bhojanagara, the capital of king Uśīnara of the Uśīnara country ⁴ near the Kankhal region where the Ganges issues from the hills. In any case we may conclude that the Bhojas and the Vidarbhas were closely related. Kālidāsa also calls the king of Vidarbha a Bhoja (Raghuvaṃśa, V, 39, 40).

It was said of the heroic Bhoja prince Rukmin that he was in the very front rank of the warriors of his time; the bow named Vijaya which he wielded was only equalled by the Gāṇḍīva of Arjuna and the Sārṅgadhanu of Kṛṣṇa. This prince is said to have been equally skilled with the bow and the sword and various other weapons, but to have been inordinately proud, and because of his boastfulness, his offer of aid was refused by both sides in turn before the Kurukṣetra War. On the eve of the war he came to the battle-field at the head of one complete Akṣauhinī of forces of every description.⁵

In the Sabhāparvan, we read that the whole confederacy of Anhakas, Yādavas and Bhojas abandoned Kaṃsa who was slain by Kṛṣṇa who had been appointed to do so (niyogāt). It appears from this that Kṛṣṇa had at least the tacit approval of all the allied peoples who had been tyrannized over and ill-treated by Kaṃsa. Kaṃsa himself was a Bhoja, as we learn from what Kṛṣṇa said to the Kurus in their assembly on the eve of the battle.

Another tribe with which the Bhojas are associated in the great Epic are the Kukuras who were evidently members of the Vṛṣṇicakra or confederacy of tribes *; for we are told in the *Udyogaparvan* of the Bhoja king joining the Kuru forces together with the Bhojas, Andhakas and Kukuras. In another chapter of the *Udyogaparvan*

¹ Mahābhārata, Udyogaparvan, Chap. 157; see also ibid., Chap. 48, p. 74.

² Ind. Ant., 1923, 262-3.

³ Ray Chaudhuri, P.H.A.I., 4th Edn., p. 77.

⁴ Mahābhārata, I, 85, 3533.

<sup>Mbh., Udyogaparvan, Chap. 157.
Mbh., Sabhāparvan, Chap. 62, p. 8.</sup>

⁷ Mbh., Udyogaparvan, Chap. 128, p. 37. 9 Mbh., Udyogaparvan, Chap. 19.

⁸ Mauṣalaparvan, Chap. I, 7.

also we find the Bhojas in company with the Andhakas, Vṛṣṇis, Kukuras, Sriñjayas and Cedis.¹ Again, when all the people in this confederacy of tribes were engaged in a deadly conflict among themselves, we find the Kukuras fighting with and exterminating their allies and friends, the Bhojas and Andhakas.² The Kukuras, Andhakas, and all the tribes in the Union rushed at each other like maniacs run amuck, and brought about the destruction of their closest friends.³

We have already seen that the kings among the Satvatas or Sātvats were called Bhojas: Bhoja was the designation of the royal family of the Satvatas in the days of the Aitareva Brāhmana, and afterwards the name Bhoja must have been extended to the whole Sātvat tribe. In the Mahābhārata we find the names Bhoia and Sātvata used indiscriminately to designate the same individual, e.g. in the case of Krtavarman, the Hārdikya or son of Hrdika. one of the greatest of the Bhojas, and was in the very front rank of the warriors of that warlike age. He led a complete Akşauhini or division of forces to the great Kuruksetra war 4 (on the Kuru side), and appears to have been the leader of the allied army of the Bhoja-Andhaka-Kukura-Vrsni confederacy, as we learn Udyogaparvan. 5 Krtavarman appears to have been the official commander of the allied forces even before they came to the field of battle.6 He seems to have belonged to the city of Mrttikāvatī, as we may gather from the Dronaparvan. When the young son of Subhadra was making terrible slaughter in the Kuru army, and the Kuru heroes could not match him fighting singly according to the laws of honourable warfare, six of the leaders, Krtavarman amongst them, simultaneously made an onslaught against him.7 Abhimanyu aimed a number of arrows at Bhoia Marttikavata, that is, the Bhoia from Mrttikāvatī, who must have been Krtavarman.8

In various passages of the *Mahābhārata*, Krtavarman is called either a Bhoja or a Sātvata, the two terms being used interchangeably. From a passage of the *Karnaparvan* (*Mahābhārata*, VIII, 7, 8) Krtavarman's capital Mrttikāvatī appears to have been

¹ Mbh., Udyogaparvan, V, 28.

² Mausalaparvan, Chap. 5, verse 2.

⁸ *Ibid.*, Chap. 3, pp. 40–3.

⁴ Rulmin is mentioned as leader of the Bhojas.

⁵ Mbh., Udyogaparvan, Chap. 19, pp. 17-18, 25.

⁶ Ibid., Chap. 7.

⁷ Mbh., Dronaparvan, Chap. 46, p. 4.

⁸ Ibid., 47, 8.

⁹ For example, Krtavarman is mentioned as a Bhoja at Mbh., Udyogaparvan, Chap. 57, p. 21; Chap. 165; Karnaparvan, Chap. 2, etc.; and as a Sātvata in Chap. 143 (Udyogaparvan); Bhīsmaparvan, Chaps. 16, 51, 56, 81, 86, 95; Karnaparvan, Chap. 9, p. 80.

situated in the Anarta country, for he is called a resident of Anarta. Towards the end of the battle, when Drona was killed, Krtavarman was elected leader by the remnant of the Bhojas, Kalingas and Vāhlīkas.¹ Krtavarman, the Bhoja, was one of the three heroes who attended Durvodhana when the latter took refuge in the Dvaipāyana lake.² We read of Krtavarman the Sātvata addressing the defeated Kuru monarch, and calling upon him to come out of his hiding place in the lake.3 Krtavarman took part in the slaving of the Pancalas and the sons of Draupadi, and then he and two other heroes went to give the dying king Duryodhana this welcome news.4 Finally, he returned to his own country,5 and was later slain by Satyaki in the mutually destructive encounter of the confederacy of tribes, his son then being placed on the throne of Mrttikāvatī by Krsna.6

It is stated in the Puranas, that the Satvats and the Bhojas were branches of the Yadu family who dwelt at Mathura on the banks of the Yamuna; and the Mahābhārata tells us that Krsna. removed the Yādava headquarters from Mathurā to Dvārakā through fear of King Jarāsandha of Magadha. In the Visnupurāna⁸ we read that Satvata was born in the family of Krosthu, son of Yadu. The descendants of Sātvata, son of Mahābhoja, were known as Bhojas. According to the Matsyapurāna, 10 the Bhojas were pious, learned, truthful, valiant and charitable, and were performers of religious rites; but in another passage of this Purāṇa (34, 30) as well as in the Mahābhārata (I, 85, 3533), the Bhojas are relegated to the Mleccha caste. Pargiter thinks. 11 however, that this tradition is 'unintelligible compared with all other traditions, and isprobably late, and certainly very doubtful'. As we learn from the Puranas, 12 the Bhojas were related to the Haihavas who were a branch of the Yādavas. The Haihayas are said to have comprised five families, the Vītihotras, Sāryātas, Bhojas, Avantis and Tundikeras. As we have seen, the Bhojas were closely related with the Vidarbhas; and they probably also held sway over Dandaka, the region around Nasik. This is

² Ibid., IX, 29, 53-4. ¹ Mahābhārata, VII, 193.

³ *Ibid.*, IX, 30, 9–13. See also *ibid.*, X, 1; X, 4, 6, etc.

⁵ *Ibid.*, XI, 11; XI, 66. 4 Ibid., X, 8; X, 9, 6.

⁶ Ibid., XVI, 3; XVI, 7. ⁷ Matsyapurāna, 43, 48; Chap. 44, pp. 46-8; Vāyupurāna, Chap. 94, p. 52;

Chap. 95, p. 48; Chap. 96, pp. 1-2. 8 IV, 3.

⁹ Cf. Bhāgavatapurāṇa, Chap. 9, p. 24; Kūrmapurāṇa, Chap. 24, śl. 40; Harivamśa, Chap. 37.

¹¹ A.I.H.T., p. 260, f.n. I. 10 Chap. 44, \$1. 69.

¹² Agnipurāna, Chap. 275, śloka 10; Vāyupurāna, Chap. 94, pp. 3-54; Matsyapurāṇa, Chap. 43, pp. 7-49, etc.

implied by a passage in Kautilya's *Arthaśāstra* ¹ according to which a Bhoja named Dāṇḍakya, or king of Daṇḍaka, tried to seduce a Brāhmaṇa girl, as a result of which he perished with his relations and his kingdom.

The Jaina sacred books speak of the Bhojas as Ksatriyas and descendants from those whom Rsabha acknowledged as persons deserving of honour.² The Jaina Sūtras also tell us of a Bhoja princess, Rājimatī who showed extraordinary religious zeal and

strength of mind in overcoming all temptations.3

In the Pāli Buddhist literature also we find references to Bhoja. In the Samyutta Nikāya 4 there is a mention of a Rṣi named Rohitassa Bhojaputta, i.e. one belonging to the Bhoja family or tribe. One of the Jātaka stories 5 tells that the Bodhisattva was born once as a Nāga king named Sankhapāla. He always used to give in charities and observe the religious precepts. On a certain sabbath day, while observing the precepts, he resolved to give away his own body in charity, and he became an iguana. Sixteen Bhojaputtas saw this iguana, made it weak by beating it, and carrying it off when they were seen by a merchant of Mithilā who caused Sankhapāla to be released.

The Bhojas, along with the Andhras, Pulindas and Rāṣṭrikas, were among the vassal tribes of Aśoka. Scholars hold that the Bhojas and the Rāṣṭrikas were evidently ancestors of the Mahābhojas

and Mahārathis of the Sātavāhana period.7

The next important mention of the Bhojas in the historical period is made in the Hāthigumphā Inscription of the Cheta king Khāravela (first century B.C.), which points out that Khāravela, the Mahārājā of Kalinga, defeated the Rāṭhikas and Bhojakas in the fourth year of his reign and compelled them to do homage to him. The Rāṭhikas and Bhojakas are evidently the Rāṣṭrikas and Bhojas of Aśoka's Rock Edict.

The Khālimpur grant of the Emperor Dharmapāladeva of Gauḍa (c. 800 A.D.) speaks of the king of Bhoja along with kings of Matsya, Kuru, Yadu and Yavana as having uttered benedictions at the coronation ceremony of the king of Kānyakubja.* R. D. Banerjee holds that the king of Bhoja was defeated by Dharmapāla, and compelled to accept Cakrāyudha instead of Indrarāja as lord

^{1 1919} Edn., p. 11.

² Jaina Sūtras, S.B.E., Pt. II, p. 71, n. 2. ³ Pt. II, pp. 115-8.

⁴ P.T.S. Ed., Pt. I, pp. 61-62.

⁵ Vol. V, 164ff.

⁶ Rock Edicts, V and XIII.

⁷ Cf. Ray Chaudhuri, P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., p. 259.
8 Gaudalekhamālā. p. 14.

of Kānyakubja. In Banerjee's view, Bhoja is to be identified with

part of present Rajputana.1

The Arulala-Perumal Inscription and the Ranganātha Inscription of Ravivarman refer to a Bhoja king of that name who belonged to the Yadu family of the Kerala country in S. India.² This king Ravivarman is declared in the inscription to have been wise, liberal and a protector of the good.

¹ Vāngālār Itihāsa, B.S. 1321, pp. 167-8.

² Epigraphia Indica, Vol. IV, Pt. IV, June 1896, p. 146.

CHAPTER LXXII

THE MEKALAS

The Mekalas were a small tribe inhabiting the tract of country comprising the modern Amarkantak (Amarakantaka) hills and the surrounding region. In ancient times, the Amarkantak range was known as Mekala, whence the name of the tribe is derived: and as the river Narmadā (mod. Narbadā) has its source in these hills. she was known as Mekalasutā 1 or Mekalakanyā,2 i.e. 'daughter of Mekala', or Mekalā.3 The Mekala mountain (mod. Amarkantak) is a part of the Vindhyas; and in the Puranas, the Mekalas are referred to as a Vindhyan tribe. This is also supported by the Vāmanapurāna (Chap. 13)4 which locates the Mekalas along with the Kārūsas, Bhojas, Daśārnas, Nisadhas and others, just below the Vindhvan range. The identification of the locality is confirmed by mythological allusious as well; for Mekala is said to have been a Rsi, the father of the river Narmadā,—a mythological interpretation of the well-known geographical fact. The mountain where the river rises is also known as Mekalādri (Haimakośa, IV, 140). to the Bengal recension of the Rāmāyana, Mount Mekala is referred to as the source of the river Son (Kiskindhyā Kānda, XI., 20).

According to the Epic tradition as contained in the *Dronaparvan* (IV, 8) of the *Mahābhārata*, Karṇa is said to have conquered the Mekalas along with the Utkalas, Pauṇḍras, Kalingas, Andhras, Niṣadas, Trigarttas and Vāhlīkas. In the *Rāmāyaṇa* also, the Mekala country is associated with the Utkala and Daśārṇa countries. The army of monkeys which was despatched in search of Sītā was asked to visit Mekala, Utkala, and Daśārṇa, among other countries

of the south (Canto XLII).

is not to be taken as accurate.

The Mārkandeya Purāna probably associates the Mekalas with the Ambasthas (LVIII, 14): the reference is to Mekhalāmuṣta, which appears to be a corruption of Mekala and Ambastha. If this is the case, it doubtless refers to the time when the Ambasthas or a section of them had migrated from their original habitat in the Punjab to south-eastern India, near the Mekala hill in the upper regions of the Narmadā.

There is another reference to Mekala in the *Viṣṇupurāṇa* (IV, Chap. 24, 17), where ten kings are said to have had Mekala as their land of birth.

¹ S. Konow, Karpūramanjarī, p. 182.

² Amarakoşa, I, 2, 3, 32, etc.

³ Abhidhānaratnamālā, III, 52.

⁴ Among the tribes mentioned in this list are the Kośalas who were definitely not located anywhere near the Vindhyas, but in the N.E. Accordingly, this list

CHAPTER LXXIII

THE DASARNAS

The Daśārṇas are mentioned in the Epics and Purāṇas, and also in Kālidāsa's *Meghadūta*. They appear to have had more than one settlement during the Epic period. The *Mahābhārata* seems to refer to two Daśārṇas, one in the west, which was conquered by Nakula (*Sabhāparvan*, Chap. 32), and another in the east (or southeast), which was subjugated by Bhīmasena (*Sabhāparvan*, Chap. 30). The *Rāmāyaṇa* and the Purāṇas point to a Daśārṇa country grouped with those of the Mālavas, Kārūṣas, Utkalas and Mekalas, who are all said to have lived in the Vindhyan tract.¹ This Daśārṇa is probably the same as the one conquered by Bhīmasena.

The Daśārṇa country in the west seems to have been more important than the other localities in the east or south-east. According to the *Meghadūta* (verses 24-5), the capital of this Daśārṇa country was Vidisa (mod. Bhilsā) on the Vetravatī (= mod. Betwā). The Daśārṇas thus occupied a site on the Daśārṇa river (which can still be traced in the modern Dashān river that flows through Bundelkhand, rising in Bhopal and emptying into the Betwa). According to Wilson,² a Daśārṇa river is said in the Purāṇas to rise in a mountain called Citrakūṭa (= Kāmptānāth-gir in Bundelkhand). This is doubtless identical with the modern Dashān river. The *Meghadūta* further mentions a hill called Nīcaḥ as situated in the Daśārṇa country (loc. cit.).

As we have seen, the Purāṇas associate the Daśārṇas with the Vindhyan tribes,—Mālavas, Kārūṣas, Mekalas, Utkalas, and Niṣadhas. In the Rāmāyaṇa, also their country is connected with those of the Mekalas and Utkalas, whither Sugrīva sends his monkey army in quest of Sītā (Kiṣkindhyā K., loc. cit.). The Daśārṇa country of the Rāmāyaṇa and the Purāṇas is thus different from the Daśārṇa of the Meghadūta; it is probably identical with Dosarene of the Periplus of the Erythraean Sea. According to Wilson,³ eastern or south-eastern Daśārṇa formed a part of the Chattisgarh

¹ Rāmāyaṇa; Kiṣkindhyā K., 41, 8–10; Brahmāṇḍa P., Chap. 49; Vāyu P., Chap. 45; Matsya P., Chap. 114; Mārkaṇḍeya P., Chap. 57; Vāmana P., Chap. 13; etc.—'Vindhya-pṛṣṭha-nivāsinaḥ'.

² Essays Analytical, etc., Vol. II, p. 336, f.n. 1.

³ Wilson's Visnu P., Hall's Ed., Vol. II, p. 160, f.n. 3.

District in the Central Provinces, including the native State of Patna.¹ The territory was probably situated on the river Dosaron which is mentioned by Ptolemy, and which has been identified with the river Brāhmaṇī that flows through modern Cuttack and empties itself into the Bay of Bengal. As Ptolemy did not write from personal knowledge, he could not probably give the indigenous name of the river, but named it after the people inhabiting the region. Thus 'the Dosaron is the river of the region inhabited by the Daśārṇas, a people mentioned in the Viṣṇupurāṇa as belonging to the southeast of Madhyadeśa'.²

The Daśārṇas figure in the Mahābhārata as one of the tribes who fought for the Pāṇḍavas in the great Kurukṣetra war.³ The Daśārṇa king at that time was Kṣatradeva, a mighty hero, who fought valiantly on elephant-back. He attacked the enemy-generals,⁴ and the king of Prāgjyotiṣa or Kāmarūpa.⁵ The warriors of the Daśārṇa king were all mighty heroes and could fight best on elephants.⁶ According to Kauṭilya's Arthaśāstra (Book II, Chap. II), the elephants of Aṅga and Kaliṅga belonged to the best of their species, while those of Karūṣa, Daśārṇa and Aparānta ranked second, those of the Saurāṣṭras and allied tribes (Saurāṣṭrikāḥ pañcajanāḥ) being the worst.

We read elsewhere in the *Mahābhārata* of another Daśārṇa king, named Hiraṇyavarman who appears also as Hemavarman and Kāñcanavarman (both Hema and Kāñcana being synonyms of Hiraṇya, 'gold'). Pargiter thinks 8 that during the period of the Kurukṣetra war, Daśārṇa was a Yādava kingdom. 9

Erakaccha, a town in the Dasanna (= Daśārna) country, is referred to in Pāli literature. We read in the *Petavatthu* and *Commentary* of a certain merchant of Erakaccha, and of the miseries which he suffered through lack of faith in the Buddha. We are told 11 that the Therī Isidāsī was once reborn at Erakaccha as a wealthy

¹ *J.A.S.B.*, 1905, pp. 7, 14.

² McCrindle's Ptolemy, Mazumder's Ed., p. 71.

⁸ Karnaparvan, Chap. 22, 3; Bhīṣmaparvan, Chaps. 95, 41, 43; Dronaparvan, Chap. 25, 35.

⁴ Bhīsmaparvan, Chap. 95, 41, 43.

⁵ Dronaparvan, Chap. 25, 35.

⁶ Karnaparvan, Chap. 22, 3.

⁷ Mbh., V, 190, 7419; 193, 7493, 7506, 7511 and 7518.

⁸ A.I.H.T., p. 280.

⁹ Mbh., V, 190, 7417ff.; Harivamsa, Chap. 91, 4967.

Petavatthu, 20; Commentary, pp. 99–105.
 Therigāthā, 435; see also Buddhist India, p. 40.

craftsman, a worker in gold. Dasanna was apparently a centre of the art of sword-making.¹ It is mentioned in the Mahāvastu² as one of the sixteen Mahājanapadas. We also read in the Mahāvastu that the Buddha distributed knowledge among the Daśārnas who built a vihāra for him.3

Jātaka (Fausböll), III, 338: 'Dasannakam tikhinadhāram asim'.
 I, 34. (Senart's edition).
 Law: A Study of the Mahūvastu, p. 9.

CHAPTER LXXIV

THE PĀRIYĀTRAS

It is doubtful whether Pāriyātras, or Pāripātras as they were also called,¹ can ethnologically be classed as a tribe or people, to be distinguished from the Vindhyas with whom they lived contiguously, or from other peoples who had their habitat in and around the same locality. The Purāṇas, however, always enumerate them as a distinct people, associated with the Pāripātra mountains, from which they evidently took their name.

As already noticed, there are two variant forms of the mountainous region inhabited by this people, as given in the Purāṇas: Pāriyātra and Pāripātra; Pāripātra seems to be the more usual reading, though Pāriyātra occurs not infrequently. In the topographical list of the Purāṇas, the Pāriyātra or Pāripātra hills are mentioned as one of the seven hill ranges together forming the Kulācalas or Kulaparvatas, 'family mountains', i.e. mountain ranges or systems. These are the Mahendra, Malaya, Sahya, Suktimat, Rkṣa, Vindhya and Pāripātra.² The Bhāgavata, Vāyu, Mārkaṇḍeya and Padma Purāṇas and the Bhīṣmaparvan of the Mahābhārata add a list of inferior mountains to these seven.³ The seven principal hill ranges are similarly enumerated by all the Puranic authorities, and their situation is easily determined by the rivers which are listed as flowing from them.

Pāripātra in particular is always associated with the Vindhyas. Vindhya, as is well known, is the general name of the chain of hills that stretches across Central India, dividing India into its well-defined and natural north and south divisions; but it is evident from the Puranic list and the situations of the hills mentioned in it that in the Purāṇas the name Vindhya is generally restricted to the eastern division of the long range of hills. According to the Vāyu-purāṇa, however, it is the part south of the river Narmadā, or the Sātpurā range of hills. Pāripātra constitutes the northern and

¹ Mārkandeya Purāņa, 58, 8.

² F.g., Viṣṇupurāṇa, Wilson's Ed., Bk. II, Chap. III, pp. 127-8; also Mārkandeya Purāṇa, 57, 10; Mahābhārata, VI, 9, 11.

³ Bhāgavatapurāna, V, 19, 16ff; Mārkandeya P., LVII, 12ff.; Mbh., Bhāsmaparvan, śl. 317-378. 'As subordinate portions of them are thousands of mountains; some unheard of, though lofty, extensive and abrupt; and others, better known, though of lesser elevation, and inhabited by people of low stature.'

western portion of the Vindhyas, and may be said to include the range of hills now known as the Aravalli.

The *Viṣṇupurāṇa*, for example, mentions Pāriyātra or Pāripātra as situated on the west, associated with the semi-mythical mount Meru. 'Niṣadha and Pāriyātra are the limitative mountains on the west (of Meru), stretching, like those on the east, between the Nīla and Niṣadha ranges.' ¹

The list of the seven Kulācalas seems to have been known in some form or other to Ptolemy as early as the first half of the second century A.D.; for he also specifies seven ranges of hills, although his list does not correspond with the Puranic list, with the exception of the Ouindion, identical with the Vindhyas, and the Ouxenton, identical with the Rkṣa (Vant).² Wilson thought that Adeisathron might be identified with the Pāriyātra³; but this has been found to be untenable, and modern research tends to connect the range with the Western Ghāṭs, or, more properly, 'that section of the Western Ghāṭs which is immediately to the north of the Coimbatore gap, as it is there the Kāverī rises'.4

According to Rājaśekhara, all seven *Kulaparvatas* were comprised within the Kumārī-dvīpa whose southernmost limit, according to the *Skandapurāṇa* was the Pāriyātra.⁵ In the period of the Brahmanical and Buddhist Sūtras too, Pāriyātra was the southernmost limit of contemporary Āryāvarta, while the eastern and western boundaries were formed by Kālakavana (probably near Allahabad) and Adarśana and Thūna (on the Sarasvatī) respectively.⁶

The Purāṇas refer to a number of rivers issuing from the Pāriyātra, e.g. the Mahī, the Varṇāśā or Parṇāśā, the Śiprā, the Carmaṇvatī, the Sindhu and the Vetravatī. The Mahī is well known; Varṇāśā or Parṇāśā has been identified by Pargiter with the modern Banās, a tributary of the Carmaṇvatī (Chambal). Sindhu is Kāli Sindhu, a tributary of the Carmaṇvatī, and Vetravatī is modern Betwa. Siprā is the famous river immortalised in Sanskrit classical poetry. The Viṣṇupurāṇa mentions yet another river issuing from the Pāripātra mountains, namely, the Vedasmṛti or Vedasmṛta according to the Mahābhārata).8

¹ Vișnupurāna, 2, II, Wilson's Ed., p. 123.

² Ptolemy's Ancient India, by McCrindle, S. N. Majumdar's Ed., pp. 75-81.

³ Viṣṇu Purāna, Wilson's Ed., 2, III, p. 128. ⁴ McCrindle, Ptolemy's Ancient India, p. 80.

⁵ Skandapurāņa, Kumārika-khaṇḍa, Chap. 39, 113: 'Pāriyātrasya caivārvāk khandam Kaumārikam smrtam'.

⁶ Dharma-sütra of Bodhāyana,-I, 1, 25. 'Prāgadarsanāt pratyak Kālakavanād dakṣiṇena Himavantam udak Pāriyātram etad Āryāvartam'.

⁷ Wilson's Ed., p. 130 (2, III).

⁸ Bhīşmaparvan.

The Vāyupurāna mentions the Kārūṣas and the Mālavas as dwelling along the Pāripātra mountains.¹ The Nasik Praśasti of Gautamīputra Śātakarṇi seems to associate the Kukuras also with the Pāriyātra.² This is probably the earliest epigraphic mention of the mountains. A more elaborate mention is made in the Mandasor Inscription of Yaśodharman and Viṣṇuvardhana,³ where a large tract of land is described as 'containing many countries, which lie between the Vindhya (mountains), from the slopes of the summits of which there flows the pale mass of the water of (the river) Revā, and the mountain Pāriyātra, on which trees are bent down in (their) frolicsome leaps by the long-tailed monkeys (and which stretches) up to the ocean'.

 $^{^1}$ Wilson's Ed., p. 133 (2, III). Mālukas and Mārukas are variant readings for Kārūṣas. See also $K\bar{u}rma$ P., Pūrva Chap. 7, which seems to include the countries of Aparānta, Saurāṣṭra, Śūdra, Malapa (Mālava), Mālaka and others within the Pāriyātra area.

² Brhatsamhitā, XIV, 4.

³ C.I.I., Vol. III, p. 154.

CHAPTER LXXV

MISCELLANEOUS TRIBES

PETENIKAS — GO-LĀŅGULAS — SAILUŞAS — KUSUMAS — NĀMA-VĀSAKAS—ĀDHAKYAS—DAŅDAKAS—PAURIKAS—ATHARVAS ARKALINGAS—MAULIKAS—MŪSIKAS OR MŪSAKAS—CULIKAS AND ŚŪLIKAS — KANKANAS — TOSALAS — VAIDIŚAS — TUSTIKĀRAS — MĀHISAKAS OR MĀIIISĪKAS—KĪKATAS—PRAVAŅGAS—RAŅGEYAS —MĀNADAS—UGRAS—TANGANAS—MUDAKARAS — ANTARGIRYAS -BAHIRGIRAS - ANŪPAS - KUKURAS - SURYĀRAKAS - VRKAS -HĀRABHŪSIKAS — MĀTHARAS — JĀGUDAS — BRAHMOTTARAS — BHRGUKACCHAS—MĀHEYAS—BHOJAS—APARĀNTAS—HAIHAYAS -BHOGAVARDHANAS-SARAJAS-VIRAHOTRAS-VINDHYA-MAULEYAS — JĀŊĠALAS — BHADRAKARAS — KSHUDRAKAS -PUSKALAS - CĪNAS- TUKHĀRAS - SĀRASVATAS - AŚVAKŪTAS -KULYAS — MALAKAS — BODHAS — DAŠAMĀLIKAS — HARSAVAR-DHANAS-KUŚERUKAS-HAMSAMÂRGAS-KUHAKAS-ŚATAPATHA -CARMAKHANDIKAS-GABALAS-ŚATADRUJAS-URNAS-DARVAS —BAHU-BHADRAS—TRAIPURAS—GAJĀHVAYAS—PARNA-ŚAVARAS -ARBUDAS-KHASAS

The Petenikas of Aśokan inscriptions have been plausibly identified with the Paithanikas or inhabitants of Petenikas the Godavari in North-Western Paithān on Paithan is the present name of ancient Pratisthana Hyderabad. which was a flourishing city during the rule of the Satavahana Pratisthana, the modern Paithan on the north bank of the Godavari in the Aurangabad District of Hyderabad, is famous in literature as the capital of King Śātakarni (Sātavāhana or Sālivāhana) and his son Śakti-kumāra who are generally identified with the king Satakarni and the prince Sakti-Śrī of the Nanaghat According to Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar the word inscriptions.² 'Pitinika' of Asokan inscriptions, as mentioned in Rock Edicts V and XIII, should not be treated as a separate word and is to be regarded as an adjective qualifying Rastrika (mentioned in Edict V) and Bhoja (mentioned in Edict XIII) which are mentioned along with it. In this connection Dr. Bhandarkar points to certain

² *Ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 531.

¹ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 603.

passages in the Angultara Nikāya¹ where the term Pettanika occurs in the sense of one who enjoys property given by father.² Other scholars, however, identify the Pitinikas with the Paithānakas or natives of Paiṭhān and some go so far as to suggest that they are the ancestors of the Sātavāhana rulers of Paiṭhān.³ Both the author of the Periplus and Ptolemy mention Paiṭhāna or Baiṭhāna. Paiṭhān is placed by the author of the Periplus at a distance of twenty days' journey to the south of Barugaza (identified generally with Bharukaccha or modern Broach), and is spoken of as the greatest city in Dakhinabades or Dakṣiṇāpatha and Tagara (identified by some with Devagiri, by others with Junnar and by R. G. Bhandarkar with Dharur in Nizam's territory), ten days' east of Paiṭhān.

No people of the name Go-Lāṅgulas are known. The Matsya-purāṇa reads Cōlas and Kulyas (CXIII, 46) and the Vāyu Caulyas and Kulyas instead (XLV, 124). The Cōlas (Caulyas) were a well-known people and were famous from very early times, being one of the four tribes of the far south. The Kulyas are not met with anywhere; but undoubtedly they are the same people as the Kolas mentioned more than once in the Mahābhārata. But the people cannot satisfactorily be identified.

The Vāyu (XLV, 125) and the Matsya (CXIII, 47) Purāṇas read Setūkas instead; but none of the names can be identified. Pargiter's suggestion that they might mean the people who lived near the Setu of Rāma is ingenious and may not altogether be improbable, for they are mentioned in connection with the people of the far south.

The Kusumas are also known as Kumanas and Kupathas. Pargiter suggests an identification with the Kurubas or Kurunbas, who were the same as the Pahlavas, an important tribe of Southern India.

The Vāyupurāṇa reads (XLV, 125) Vanavāsikas and the Bhīṣma-parvan list Vanavāsakās (IX, 366) which is the correct reading. Doubtless they refer to the people of the kingdom of Vanavāsī, a well-known region of the south in North Kanara in historical times, and not unknown to the author of the Harivaṃśa (XCV, 5213 and 5231–3). The Matsyapurāṇa reads Vāji-Vāsikas (CXIII, 47) which is apparently incorrect. It is ancient Vaijayantipura, also known as Jayantipura, capital of the

¹ III, 70 and 300.

² Ind. Ant., 1919, p. 80.

³ Cf. Woolner, Asoka, p. 113; J.R.A.S., 1923, 92.

⁴ Sabhāparvan, XXX, 1171; Asvamedhaparvan, LXXXIII, 2476-7.

Vāyupurāna, XLV, 125.
 Matsyapurāna, CXIII, 47.

Kadambas and the Vejayantī of epigraphic records. It is held to be the same as the Buzantion of the *Periplus*.

The Vāyu and Matsya Purānas (XLV, 126 and CXIII, 48) read

Āṭavyas which is no doubt the correct reading.

Āṭavī as a city of the Deccan is mentioned in the Mahābhārata.¹ The Āṭavyas were certainly the same as the Āṭavikas of the Allahabad Pillar Inscription of Samudragupta, who were perhaps aboriginal tribes dwelling in the jungle tracts of Central India.

The Daṇḍakas are undoubtedly the people dwelling in the Daṇḍaka forest celebrated in the Rāmāyaṇa in connection with the story of Rāma's exile. According to the description in the Rāmāyaṇa, the forest seems to have covered almost the whole of Central India from the Bundelkhand region to the Godāvarī,² but the Mahābhārata seems to limit the Daṇḍaka forest to the source of the Godāvarī.³

For Paurikas the Vāyupurāṇa reads Paunikas instead (XLV, 127)

perhaps wrongly. According to the Harivaṃśa,
Purikā was a city in the Māhiṣmatī kingdom (XCV,
5220–28). It is not improbable that Purikā was the city of the
Paurikas.

These two names are evidently misreadings and it is difficult to find out what is the correct form. The VāyuAtharvas and purāṇa reads atha pārśve talaṅgāśca while the Matsya gives Atharvāśca Kaliṅgāśca. All these readings are improbable. Tilaṅgas are well known as a southern people who are mentioned in connection with the southern peoples in the Mārkandeya Purāṇa. (Chap. 58, verse 28). They are identical with the Trikaliṅgas. Avantas and Kaliṅgas though otherwise well known are nowhere located in the Madhyadeśa. The Mārkandeya Purāṇa speaks of the Avantas as a Vindhyan tribe (Chap. 57, verses 52 and 55). In the same Purāṇa, the Kaliṅgas are once spoken of as a northern tribe (ibid., verse 37) and then again as a southern tribe (ibid., v. 46). The reference to the Kaliṅgas as a northern tribe is undoubtedly wrong.

The Vāyupurāna reads Maunikas (XLV, 127) instead. The Sabhāparvan of the Mahābhārata refers to a people named Mauleyas. The Maulikas were evidently the people of Mūlaka mentioned in the Pārāyaṇavagga of the Suttanipāta.

¹ Sabhāparvan, XXX, 1176.

² J.R.A.S., 1894, p. 241; cf. Jātaka, Fausböll, Vol. V, p. 29. ³ Sabhāparvan, XXX, 1169; Vanaparvan, LXXXV, 8183-4.

The Mahābhārata 1 and the Mārkandeya Purāna mention a people called the Musikas as dwelling in the south; The Mūşikas or the same people evidently were also called Mūsakas Mūsakas who are mentioned twice in the Mahābhārata.² The Mārkandeya Purāna in another context refers to a people called Mrisikas 3 as dwelling in the south-cast and still another called Risikas 4 in the south. The Mrisikas were apparently the same as the Mūṣikas or the Musakas. The Risikas were also a well-known people; they are referred to as dwelling in the north in the Mahābhārata,5 in the Rāmāyaṇa 6 as well as in the Matsyapurāna.7 Another section of the same people seems to have their location in the south.8 It is difficult to say whether the Risikas were the same as the Mrisikas or the Mūsikas = Mūsakas.

Pargiter suggests 9 that the Mūsikas = Mūsakas were probably settled on the banks of the river Musi on which stands modern Hyderabad. Dr. Ray Chaudhuri suggests 10 that it is not altogether improbable that the Mūchipa or Mūvīpa of the Sānkhyāyana Śrauta Sūtra are the same people as the Mūsikas. It is also reasonable to suggest that the Mūsikas = Mūsakas were a southern offshoot of the Punjab tribe known to Alexander's historians as the Mousikenos. 11 Patañjali mentions a people called Mausikāra ¹² which appears to have some connection with the Mūṣikas. A Musikanagara is referred to in the Hāthigumphā Inscription of King Khāravela of Kalinga who in the second year of his reign is said to have struck terror into the heart of the people of that place.13

The Culikas and the Śūlikas are mentioned in Mārkandeya list 14 as two different peoples, but both in the north. For The Culikas and Culikas, the Vāyupurāna reads Pīdikas 15 and the Śūlikas Matsyapurāna Sainikas instead.16 The Mārkandeya Purāṇa in another context ¹⁷ places the Culikas in the Tortoise's tail at the westernmost part of India. For Śūlikas, the Vāyupurāṇa reads Culikas in the same context, and the Matsyapurāna says that they were a people through whose country flowed the river Caksu, one of the three large rivers which rising from the mid-Himalayan

² Ibid., IX, 366 and 371.

⁶ Kişkindhyā Kānda, XLIV, 13.

4 LVIII, 27.

¹ Bhīşmaparvan, IX, 366.

³ LVIII, 16.

⁵ Sabhāparvan, XXVI, 1033-6.

⁷ CXX, 53.

⁸ Rāmāyana, Kişkindhyā Kānda, XLI, 16; Harivamśa, CXIX, 6724-6.

¹⁰ P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., p. 80. ⁹ Mārkandeya Purāna, p. 366.

¹¹ Cf. Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 377.

12 IV, i, 4.

13 Epigraphia Indica, XX, 79, 87; Barua reads Aśvaka or Risika instead in his Old Brāhmī Inscriptions, p. 176; Thomas also finds no reference in the passage to any Old Brāhmī Inscriptions, p. 7, Musika city, J.R.A.S., 1922, 83.

¹⁶ CXIII, 43. ¹⁷ LVIII, 37.

region flows westward.¹ Pargiter suggests that Cakṣu may perhaps be meant for Vakṣu (= Vaṃkṣu) which is the Oxus, and says that in that case the Śūlikas would be a people on the Oxus in Turkistan.² He also points to the resemblance of the name Śūlikas with that of the Śūlakaras mentioned in the same canto of the $M\bar{a}rkan\dot{q}eya$ $Pur\bar{a}na.³$

But the Śūlikas are mentioned in the Harāhā Inscription of Īśānavarman Maukhari in a different context; there they are mentioned along with the Andhras and Gauḍas, all of whom appear to have been defeated by Īśānavarman. Dr. Ray Chaudhuri suggests that the Śūlikas should be identified with the Cālukyas who are mentioned in the Mahākūṭa Pillar Inscription as Calikya, names so near to Culika of the Purāṇas. The Śūlikas may further be identified with the Solaki and Solaṅki of the Gujrat records. The Culikas and Śūlikas may thus be the same people.

The Śūlikas or the Śaulikas are further mentioned in the Brhat-saṃhitā balong with the Aparāntas, Vanavāsīs and the Vidarbhas. Elsewhere the Brhatsaṃhitā connects the same people with the Gandhāras and Vokkāras (occupying modern Wakhan). This suggests that a section of the people must have once been dwelling in the north or north-west, and another in the western or Aparānta region. The kingdom of Śulik according to Tārānātha was located

beyond Togara = Tegara = modern Ter 7 in the Deccan.

The Kankanas as a tribe are referred to in the Mārkandeya Purāṇa and the Harivaṃśa. According to the latter source, they were defeated and degraded by King Sagara. They must have been the people dwelling along the low strip of land between the Western Ghats and the sea called in historical times Kankan or Konkan. Their mention along with the Bhṛgukacchas in the Mārkandeya Purāṇa makes this identification more significant.

The Tosalas are referred to in the Mārkandeya Purāna along with the Karūṣas, Keralas, Utkalas, Daśārṇas, Kośalas, Avantis, etc., all of whom dwelt on the slopes of Vindhya mountains. The Matsyapurāṇa reads Stosalas (CXIII, 53) erroneously, for Tosalas is the correct reading meaning the people of Tosali or Tosala and the adjoining region. Tosali or Tosala was the name of a country as well as of a city. The city of Tosali was the seat of the provincial government of Kalinga in the

¹ CXX, 45, 46.

⁸ LVII, 40.

⁵ IX, 15; XIV, 8.

⁷ Ind. Ant., IV, 364.

² Mārkandeya Purāņa, p. 342, note.

⁴ P.H.A.I., 4th Ed., 509.

⁶ IX, 21; XVI, 35. ⁸ VIII, 22.

⁹ XIV, 784.

days of Aśoka. The country or janapada of 'Amita-Tosala' is referred to in the *Gauḍavyaha* along with its city Tosala.¹ In Pauranic literature, Tosala is always associated with Dakṣiṇa Kośala and distinguished from Kaliṅga. Tosala in medieval times seems to have been divided into two parts: Dakṣiṇa Tosala and Uttara Tosala.² The city of Tosala seems to have been the same as Tosalei of Ptolemy.

The Vaidiśas are undoubtedly the people of Vidiśā, a famous city of early times, the capital of the Daśārṇa country, immortalised by Kālidāsa in his Meghadūtam. Vidiśā is probably the modern Besnagar, close to Bhilsa. It was situated

on the river Vetravatī, modern Betwa.

The name Tustikāras seems to be a misreading. The Vāyupurāṇa reads Tuṇḍikeras (XL,V, 134) which is supported by the Mahābhārata and the Harivaṃśa (XXXIV, 1895). According to the Harivaṃśa they belonged to the Haihaya race (ibid.). The tribe seems to have left their trace in the little town of Tendukhera, a little to the north of the source of the Narmadā. Sauṇḍikeras, which is the reading of the Matsyapurāṇa, is incorrect.

The Māhisakas or Māhisīkas are referred to in the Purānas 5 as a people of the south. They are mentioned in the The Māhisakas same context in the Sabhāparvan list 6 of the or Māhisikas Mahābhārata. Undoubtedly they are the same people as the Māhismakas of the Aśvamedhaparvan of the Mahābhārata, and were the inhabitants of the ancient region Māhismatī mentioned also in the Mahābhārata.8 Māhismatī seems to have been situated on the river Narmadā between the Vindhya and the Riksa and can safely be identified with the modern Mandhata region, where there was a river called Māhisiki mentioned in the Rāmāyana.9 According to one passage in the Harivamśa, 10 the founder of Māhismatī seems to have been Mucukunda, according to another 11 Mahismat. According to the Purāṇas,12 Māhiṣmatī was founded by a prince of the Yadu lineage. Bhandarkar says that Avanti Daksinapatha

had its capital at Māhiṣmatī or Pāli Māhissati. The Purāṇas style the first dynasty of Māhismatī as Haihaya, 13 whereas the Mahāgovinda

¹ Cf. Levi, Pre-Aryan et Pre-Dravidian L'Inde, J.A., July-Sept., 1923.

² Ep. Ind., IX, 286; XV, 3.

³ Dronaparvan, XVII, 691; Karnaparvan, V, 138.

⁴ Pargiter, Mārkandeya Purāna, p. 344, note.

Mārkandeya Purāņa, LVII, 46; Matsyapurāņa, CXIII, 47.
 IX, 366.
 LXXXIII, 2475.

 ⁸ Sabhāparvan, XXX, 1125-63.
 9 Kişkindhyā Kānḍa, XI,I, 16.
 10 XCV, 5218ff.
 11 XXXIII, 1846-7.

¹² Matsyapurāna, XLIII, 10-29; XLIV, 36; Vāyupurāna, 94, 26; 95, 35.

¹³ Ibid., 43, 8-29; Vāyu, 94, 5-26.

Suttanta mentions Māhissati as the capital of the Avantis, and refers to their king Vessabhu. But the Mahābhārata distinguishes between Avanti and Māhismatī.¹

The Kīkaṭas or Kīkaṭa tribe are mentioned in the Rgveda (III, 53, 14) as being under the rule of a king named Pramaganda. Yāska in his Nirukta (VI, 32) says that Kīkaṭa was a non-Aryan country (anārya-nivāsa). The author of the Bṛhaddharma Purāṇa echoes this feeling of Yāska when he says that the Kīkaṭa country was pāpa-bhūmi or impure country (Kīkaṭe ca mṛto'pyeṣa pāpabhūmau na saṃśayaḥ, XXVI, 47). The Gayā District was probably included in the Kīkaṭa country as is evident from the following passage of the Bṛhaddharma Purāṇa (XXV, 20, 22):

'Kīkaṭe nāma deśe' sti Kāka-karṇākhyo nṛpaḥ I Prajānām hitakṛnnityam Brahmadveṣakaras tathā II Tatra deśe Gayā nāma puṇyadeśo'sti viśrutaḥ I Nadī ca Karṇadā nāma pitṛnām svargadāyini II'

Similar statements are also found in the Vāyu and the Bhāgavata Purānas as well as in the commentary of Śrīdhara. E.g.: 'Kīkaṭeṣu Gayā puṇyā puṇyam Rājagrham vanamı Cyāvanasyāśramam puṇyaṃ nadī puṇyā punahpunah' (Vāyu, 108, 73). 'Buddho nāmnāñjanasutaḥ Kīkaṭeṣu bhaviṣyati' (Bhāgavata, 1, 3, 24). 'Kīkaṭeṣu madhye Gayāpradeśe' (Śrīdhara). Kīkaṭa thus was an impure country but later Brahmanical sources seem to have regarded some of its localities at least as holy, e.g. Gayā, Rājagrha and the hermitage of the sage Cyavana. Later authorities seem to hold the Kīkaṭa country identical with Magadha. Thus in Hemacandra's Abhidhānacintāmaṇi we find: 'Kīkaṭā-Magadhāhvayāḥ'. According to Prof. A. B. Keith² if the Kīkaṭas of the Rġveda were, as has been suggested, really located in Magadha, the dislike of the country goes back to the Rġveda itself. The causes most probably have been the imperfect Brāhmanisation of the land and the predominance of aboriginal blood, which later in history rendered Magadha the headquarters of Buddhism.

The Pravangas probably stand for those people who dwelt just in front of the Vangas (Pravanga). It is not unlikely that they may be the same people as the Angas.

This is evidently a copyist's mistake for Vangeyas which is the reading of the Vāyupurāna (XLV, 122). The Matsyapurāna simply reads Vangas. They are undoubtedly the people of ancient Vanga or Bengal.

¹ Mahābhārata, II, 31, 10.

² Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 123.

The Vāyupurāṇa reads Māladas (XLV, 122). Pargiter assumes that here we have a reference to the people of modern Maldah in which are situated the old cities of Gauḍ and Pāṇḍuyā. The Māladas are also mentioned as an eastern people in the Mahābhārata.¹

The Ugras seem to have been a very old and once a well-known tribe. They are mentioned in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (III, 8, 2) and also in the Uvāsagadasāo.² According to the Aṅguttara Nikāya, the Uggas or Ugras are associated with Vesālī or Vaiśālī.³ They are also connected with Hatthigāma according to the same Nikāya. The Dhammapada Commentary refers to a city called Ugga or Ugra. A passage in the Sūtrakṛtāṅga seems to suggest that the Ugras along with the Aikṣvākas, Bhogas and Kauravas were associated with the Jūātṛs and Licchavis as subjects of the Vajji rulers and members of the Vajji clan.⁴

The Vāyupurāṇa reads Taṅganas (XLV, 120) and more than once in the Mahābhārata be we find reference to Taṅganas and Para-taṅganas. The Epic description shows that they were allied with the Kirātas and Pulindas. From the description given in the Mahābhārata it appears that they were a

rude tribe, for their main fighting weapon was stone.7

The name Mudakaras is found in the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa.8

The Vāyupurāṇa gives Sujarakas and the Matsya Madgurakas. None of these names is identifiable. One may, nevertheless, guess that here is a name which is a corrupt rendering of Mudgagiri or Modagiri, mentioned in literature and inscriptions, which is generally identified with the hills of Monghyr in Bihar. Monghyr was also known as Mudgala-puri, Mudgalāśrama and so on. The Mudgalas or the people of Monghyr are also referred to in the Mahābhārata.9

The Antargiryas must be those people dwelling in the hilly stretch of the Rajmahal ranges of the Santhal Parganas. They are mentioned in the Bhīṣmaparvan list of the Mahābhārata.

The Bahirgiras may also be said to have been associated with the hilly tracts of Bihar and from their mention along with the Antargiryas it seems that the people meant were

¹ Sabhāparvan, XXIX, 1081-2; Dronaparvan, VII, 183.

<sup>Hoernle's Ed., II, p. 139, art. 210.
Cf. Uggo gahapati Vesāliko; Anguttara Nikāya, 1, 26.
S.B.E., XLV, 339.</sup>

Sabhāparvan, LI, 1859; Bhīṣmaparvan, IX, 372.
 Vanaparvan, CXL, 10863-5; Sabhāparvan, LI, 1858-9.

⁷ Dronaparvan, CXXI, 4835-47.

⁸ Mārkandeya Purāṇa, 57, 42. 9 Droṇaparvan, XI, 397.

dwellers on the outskirts of the hills of Bhagalpur and Monghyr regions.

The Anūpas are mentioned as a tribe in the Vāyupurāna (XIV, 134); the Matsyapurāna reads Anipa (CXIII, 54) while the Mārkandeya Purāņa (LVII, 55) reads Annajas. Anūpa literally means any marshy tract or country lying not very far from the seas. In this sense the word 'sāgarānūpa' is used in several places in the *Mahābhārata*. Thus we find tracts known as Anūpa in Bengal 1 in the far south 2 on the western coast 3 in or near about Kathiawar. From the Harivamśa we learn that the country of the Anūpa tribe lay near Surāstra and Ānartta. The Harivamśa further informs us that it was to the south of Surāstra (XCIV, 5142-80). In the Mahābhārata king Kārtavīrya and Nala are styled 'lords of Anūpa'. It seems likely, therefore, that the Anūpas occupied the tract of country south of Surāstra, around Māhismatī on the Narmadā. Epigraphic evidence also lends support to such a view. The Nāsik Cave Inscription of Queen Gautamī Balaśrī records that her son conquered Anūpa along with other countries, namely, Mahārāṣṭra, Mūlaka (country round Paiṭhān), Suratha (Surāstra or Kathiawar), Kukura (country near the Pāriyātra or the Western Vindhyas), Aparanta (northern Konkan), Vidarbha (Berar) and Akaravanti (eastern and western Malwa). Most of these tracts seem to have been reconquered from Gautamiputra by Saka Mahākṣatrapa Rudradāman whose Junāgadh Rock Inscription states that his sway extended over Pūrv-āpar-ākar-āvanti (east and west Malwa). Anūpanivrit or the Māhismatī (Māndhātā?) region, Ānartta (tract round Dwarka according to some; district round Vadanagara according to others),6 Surāstra (district round Junāgadh), Svabhra (the country on the banks of the Sabarmati), Maru (Marwar), Kaccha (Cutch), Sindhu-Sauvīra (the lower Indus valley), Kukura (part of Central India, probably near the Pāriyātra Mt. according to the Brhatsamhitā, XIV, 4), Aparānta (north Konkan), and Niṣāda (in the region of the Sarasvatī and the western Vindhyas).7

The Kukuras as a tribe find mention in the Bhāgavatapurāna.

They seem to have occupied the Dwārakā region which is described as: 'Kukur-Āndhaka-Vṛṣṇibhiḥ Juptāḥ'. The Vāyupurāna also seems to refer to the tribe when it represents Ugrasena, the king of the Yādavas as 'Kukurodbhava' or 'originated from Kukura'. The Bṛhatsaṃhitā seems to locate the

¹ Sabhāparvan, XXV, 1002; XXIX, 1101; XXXIII, 1268-9.

² Udyogaparvan, XVIII, 578. ⁸ Ibid., III, 81.

⁴ Harivamśa, CXIII, 6361-9; CXIV, 6410·11.
5 Bhīşmaparvan, XCV, 4210.
6 C

⁶ Cf. Bomb. Gaz., 1, i, 6.

⁷ Cf. Niṣādarāṣṭra, Mbh., III, 130-4 and Pāriyātracaraḥ, Mbh., XII, 135, 3-5.

tribe in western or central India (XIV, 4). According to the Nāsik Cave Inscription of Queen Gautamī Balaśrī, her son conquered the Kukuras, Suraṭhas, Mūlakas, Aparāntas, Anūpas, Vidarbhas and others. From the Junāgaḍh Rock Inscription of Mahākṣatrapa Rudradāman we learn that most of these peoples along with the Kukuras were again conquered by him. These provinces were in all probability wrested from the hands of the contemporary Sātavāhana ruler of Deccan. According to Sir R. G. Bhandarkar, the Śātakarni lord of Dakṣiṇāpatha from whom Rudradāman conquered these provinces was Gautamīputra Śātakarni.¹ According to Rapson the Sātavāhana ruler of Deccan, whom Rudradāman defeated, was Pulumāyi.

The name Suryārakas is a misreading for Sūrpārakas. The Sūrpārakas country was known from very early times, and is celebrated in the Mahābhārata in connection with the legend of Rāma Jāmadagnya.² There it is located in the western region, but some passages seem to locate it in the south as well.³ This does not mean that there were two Sūrpārakas. The reason for this anomaly seems to be clear, for the country was near the southern sea in the western region. According to the same Epic,⁴ it was situated on the sea near Prabhāsa, that is, modern Somnath in Kathiawar. The city of Sūrpāraka, identical with the modern town of Sopārā near Bassein, is said to have been founded by Rāma Jāmadagnya.⁵

In the Mahābhārata ⁶ we find reference to the Vṛkas. The Matsyapurāṇa reads Andhakas instead. The Andhakas are intimately associated with the Yādavas and are often referred to in the Mahābhārata ⁷ but they are known to have been located in Western India or Aparānta. A more correct or better reading seems to be Vṛṣṇikas.

The variant readings are Hārapūrikas and Hāramurtikas. None of these names is identifiable. Pargiter suggests Hāra-hūṇakas who are mentioned in the Mahābhārata as a people outside India on the west. 10

This reading is evidently wrong. The Matsyapurāṇa (CXIII,

43) reads Rāmaṭhas instead. The Mahābhārata
makes mention of them and locates them in the

³ Sabhāparvan, XXX, 1169; Vanaparvan, LXXXVIII, 8337.

⁴ Vanaparvan, CXVIII, 10221-27.

⁵ Harivaṃśa, XCVI, 5300.

⁶ Bhīṣmaparvan, LI, 2106.

⁷ Udyogaparvan, LXXXV, 304; Harivamsa, XXXV, 1907-8; Ibid., XXXIX,

Vāyu, XLV, 116.
 Sabhāparvan, XXXI, 1194; L, 1844; Vanaparvan, LI, 1991.

west.¹ The name of the people is also given as Ramaṭas or Ramaṭhas in the Vāyupurāṇa (XLV, 117) and also in the Mahābhārata. There is, however, no clue to their identification.

The Vāyupurāna reads Jugudas, the Matsya Jāngalas. In another place the Matsyapurāna mentions the Jagudas as a people through whose country the Indus flows (CXX, 46-48). But this indication is too vague to admit of any definite identification. The Mahābhārata also mentions the Jāgudas.

Pargiter suggests the reading Suhmotkalas 4 which is neither intended nor necessary, for evidently a better suggestion is that of the *Matsya* which reads Suhmottaras

meaning the people who dwelt north of the Suhma country.

In the Kūrmaniveśa section of the Mārkandeya Purāna the Bhṛgukacchas are located in the south. Evidently this is the correct Sanskrit form of the name which we find in a corrupt form, Bhiru-kacchas, in another section of the same Mārkandeya Purāna, whereas the Matsyapurāna reads Bharukacchas (CXIII, 50), who are the same people, namely, the Bhṛgukacchas of Sanskrit literature. Bhṛgukaccha, Bharukaccha, Bhirukaccha are all identical with the modern Broach or Bharuch which is the Barygaza of early Greek geographers. All these names survive in the modern Broach, on the mouth of the Narmadā. In early Buddhist literature as well as in the early centuries of the Christian era, the town was reputed to be an important seat of sea-going trade and commerce.

Along with the Bhrgukacchas, the $V\bar{a}yu$ (XLV, 131) and the Matsya Purāṇas (CXIII, 51) mention a people called the Kacchikas. These were undoubtedly the people of what is now known as Kutch or Cutch.

The Māheyas must have been the people dwelling on the banks of the Māhi. They are the same as the Māhikas of the Bhīṣmaparvan list of the Mahābhārata (IX, 354).

The Vāyu (XLV, 132) and Matsya Purāṇas (CXIII, 52) read Bhojas which is undoubtedly a more probable reading. The Bhojas were a Yādava tribe who dwelt in north-eastern Gujrat.

The Vāyupurāna reads Aparitas and Matsya Purandharas instead; both are evidently erroneous. The Bhīṣma-parvan list of the Mahābhārata agrees with that of the

¹ Sabhāparvan, XXXI, 1195; Vanaparvan, LI, 1991; Śāntiparvan, LXV, 2430.

² Cf. Pargiter, Mārkandeya Purāna, p. 322, note.

⁸ Vanaparvan, LI, 1991.

⁴ Mārkandeya Purāna, p. 327, note.

⁵ LVII, 51.

Mārkandeya Purāna. Mention is often made of this tribe in the Mahābhārata as Aparānta or Aparāntas.¹ Generally the term is applied to all the tribes living in the western region of India. the Mārkaṇḍeya and Bhīṣmaparvan list must also be taken to signify a particular tribe. According to the astronomical list of the Mārkandeya (Chap. 58) the tribe seems to have been located north of the Sindhu-Sauvīra country. The word Aparanta in the narrowest sense or connotation of the term, that is, the kingdom of Aparanta is identified with northern Konkan with its capital at Surparaka (modern Sopara). It lay to the west of Mahārāstra. It is mentioned in the inscriptions of Ašoka where we find that his empire included all the Aparantas (Sūrpāraka, Nāsik, etc., according to the Mārkandeya Purāṇa (57, 49-52)). The author of the Periplus mentions King Mambarus (identified by some with Nahapāna) whose capital was Minnagara in Ariake. According to D. R. Bhandarkar Minnagara is Mandasor and Ariake is Aparantika. Ushavadata's inscriptions show that Nahapāna's political influence extended from Poona and Śūrpāraka (N. Konkan) to Mandasor and Puskara (Ajmīr). From the Nāsik record of Oueen Gautamī Balaśrī we learn that her son extended his sway over Aparanta as well as over other western countries. Later on Aparanta was reconquered by the Saka Satrap Rudradāman of Western India, as we find from his Junagadh Rock Inscription of the year 72, that is, 150 A.D.

The Purānas style the first dynasty of Māhismatī as Haihaya.2 This family is referred to in Kautilya's Arthaśāstra (p. 11). The Haihavas are said to have overthrown the Nagas whose habitat was probably somewhere in the Narmada region (cf. Nagpur). Five branches of the Haihayas are mentioned in the *Matsyapurāṇa*, namely, Vītihotras, Bhojas, Avantis, Kuṇḍikeras or Tuṇḍikeras and the Tālajaṅghas (43, 48-9). In the fourth century B.C. Avanti formed an integral part of the Magadhan empire. Thus Mahāpadma Nanda, the first Nanda king, is described in the Vāyu, Matsya and Brahmānda Purānas as 'ekarāt', or sole and undisputed monarch of the earth and 'sarva Ksatrāntaka', that is, the destroyer of all ksatriya families who ruled over the different parts of India along with the Saisunagas, viz. the Iksvakus, Kurus, Pañcālas, Kāśīs, Maithilas, Vītihotras, Haihayas, Kalingas, Aśmakas, Sūrasenas and so on.3 It appears, therefore, that the Haihayas were one of the ruling Ksatriya dynasties of ancient India. In the Mahābhārata (XIII, 30) Pratardana, king of Kāśī, is said

¹ Bhīṣmaparvan, IX, 355; Vanaparvan, CCXVII, 7885-6; Śāntiparvan, XLIX, 1780-82.

² Matsya, 43, 8-29; Vāyu, 94, 5-26.

³ Ray Chaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 141.

to have crushed the power of Vītahavyas or Haihavas. According to E. J. Rapson, the Haihayas, Asmakas and Vitihotras, like the Sūrasenas, belonged to the great family of the descendants of Yadu who occupied the countries of the river Chambal in the north and the river Narbada in the south, though it is difficult to identify with precision the kingdoms indicated by these different names. Haihava is often used as a synonym of Yadava to denote the whole group of peoples and the Vitihotras are said to be a branch of the Haihayas. The Vītihotras and the Asmakas are closely associated in literature with the Avantis of Western Mālwā, whose capital was Ujjain (Ujjayinī) on the river Siprā, a tributory of the Chambal (Charmanvatī). In the Puranic list of ruling dynasties the rulers of Ujjain are not mentioned. The obvious explanation for this, as Rapson points out, is that they are probably styled Haihavas in the Puranas.2

The tribe cannot satisfactorily be identified. Bhogavardhanas Bhogavadham occurs in the Barhut Inscriptions.3

The Vāyu and Matsya Purānas read Mālavas 4 which is no doubt the correct reading. The Malayas had settle-Sarajas ments in different parts of India. The tribe referred to here may probably mean that branch of the Malavas which settled in and around that portion of Malwa which borders on the Vindhyas.

The Vāyu and Matsya Purānas read Vītihotras,5 which seems to be the correct reading. They were descended from Virahotras king Vītihotra and were a branch of the Haihaya race. A variant of their name is given in the Dronaparvan of the Mahābhārata.7 The name Vīrahotra or Varahotra is met with in the Sāñci Inscriptions of the second century B.C.

The Matsyapurāṇa erroneously reads Vindhya-puṣikas (CXIII, 48), but the Vāyu reads Vindhyamūlikas (XLV, Vindhya-126). No particular people of the name are known. Mauleyas but the name may mean the 'people who live at the foot of the Vindhyas'.

Pargiter rightly suggests that the Jangalas are the same as the people of Kurujāngalas. Kuru-jāngala, that is, Jängalas the waste land of the Kurus, was the eastern part of their territory and appears to have comprised the tract between the Ganges and North Pañcala.8 The Jangalas are mentioned with the

² *Ibid.*, p. 316.

¹ Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 316.

⁸ Vide Barua and Sinha, Barhut Inscriptions, p. 15.

⁴ XLV, 132 and CXIII, 52, respectively.

⁵ XLV, 134; CXIII, 54. 7 LXX, 2436.

⁶ Harivamsa, XXXIV, 1895.

⁸ Rāmāyana, Ayodhyā Kānda, LXXII; Mahābhārata, Sabhāparvan, XIX, pp. 793-4.

Kurus and contiguous tribes. So Pargiter's assumption seems to be correct, for we do not hear of any other people of this name mentioned in ancient literature or inscription.

It is very difficult to locate the Bhadrakaras or determine their identity. They are no doubt the same people as the Bhadrakāras¹ and the Bhadras² of the *Mahābhārata*. It is not unlikely that their habitat was near about the Kurus, the Matsvas and the Surasenas. It is not improbable that the Uttamabhadras known in historical times as a republican tribe were a section of the Epic and Pauranic Bhadrakas or Bhadras.

The Sudracae or Oxydrakai of the Punjab are generally held to be the same as Kshudrakas. They were settled between the Hydraotes (Rāvi) and the Hyphasis Kshudrakas (Beas) during the age of Alexander as we learn from classical historians. According to Ray Chaudhuri 3 they were probably settled in the territory included within the present Montgomery District of the Punjab. They were one of the most numerous and warlike of all the Indian tribes in the Punjab. Arrian in one passage refers to the 'leading men of their cities and their provincial governors', besides other eminent men. Megasthenes,4 as quoted by Strabo, records that the Persians got mercenary troops from India, namely, the Hydrakes, i.e. the Oxydrakai or Kshudrakas in the Punjab. The Malloi (Malavas) and the Oxydrakai formed a grand alliance against the army of Alexander whom they opposed tooth and nail at first but finding it an impossible task they are said to have tendered their submission to the Macedonian conqueror by sending a thousand of their troops as hostages. They are alleged to have said that love of independence alone prompted them to oppose the invader.⁵ In the Mahābhārata 6 we find mention of the Kshudrakas.

The Puskalas probably were the people from whom the name Puskalāvatī or Puskarāvatī,7 the old capital of Puskalas The $V\bar{a}vu$ and MatsvaGandhāra, derived its name. Purānas read Prasthalas. The Prasthalas were evidently people of Prasthala, closely connected with Trigarta and therefore located probably in the Punjab. Puṣkarāvatī or Puṣkalāvatī (Prākrit Pukkalaoti, whence the Peukelaotis of Arrian) is represented by the

² Vanaparvan, CCLIII, 15256.

Sabhāparvan, XIII, 590.
 Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 205. 4 Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 331 f.n.

⁵ Ibid., Vol. I, pp. 375-6.

⁶ II, 52, 15; VII, 68, 9. 7 Rāmāyana Kişkindhyā Kānda, XL, III, 23.

⁸ Mbh., Virātaparvan, XXX, 971; Bhīsmaparvan, LXXV, 3296; Dronaparvan, XVII, 691.

modern Prang and Chārsadda, 17 miles north-east of Peshawar on the Swat river.1

Peukelaotis represents Sanskrit Puskarāvatī which is mentioned in the Bodhisattvāvadāna Kalpalatā (32nd, p. 40). Puskalāvatī formed the western part of the old kingdom of Gandhara. It lay on the road from Kabul to the Indus when Alexander invaded India. Arrian tells us that the Kabul falls into the Indus in the land called Peukelaotis. The people of the surrounding region are referred to sometimes as the 'Astakenoi' by classical historians. The reigning king at the time of Alexander's invasion was Astes (Hasti or Ashtaka?) who was defeated and killed by Hephaestion, a general of Alexander. During the days of Aśoka, Puskarāvatī was the capital of Trans-Vindhvan Gandhara. At a later age Indo-Greek kings of the house of Eukratides ruledfor some time over Taksaśilā, Puskarāvatī, Kāpiśa and Bactria.² Bhandarkar³ draws our attention to an interesting coin on which the term nagara-devatā occurs, indicating that it is a civic coin bearing the image or the symbol of the tutelary or presiding deity of the city. On the obverse is a goddess with the Kharosthi legend [Pa]Khalavadi-devada, which has been taken to mean the tutelary divinity of Puskalāvatī. Puskalāvatī was a Hindu city and yet we find that the goddess on this coin wears Greek dress and a mural crown which is the emblem of a Greek civic deity. Bhandarkar holds that we cannot regard it as a Greek deity because a Hindu divinity may appear in a Greek or Hellenic garb on Indo-Bactrian coins.

In Mārkandeva Purāna the Cīnas are mentioned. In the Mahābhārata we find them taking part in the Bhārata Cinas war as allies of the Kurus along with the king of Prāgivotisa and the Kirātas of North-Eastern India. But the reference here is probably to those Chinese people who had settled somewhere from the north-west to the east along the Indian side of Thus in one place in the Mahābhārata 5 they are the Himalayas. associated with the Kāmbojas which shows that they were settled in the north-west, while in another 6 they are mentioned among the soldiers who followed Bhagadatta, king of Prāgjyotiṣa, i.e. roughly modern Assam. Other references in the Mahābhārata r seem to indicate that they were settled not very far from the sources of the They appear as a well-known and highly respectable Ganges.

¹ Schoff, The Periplus of the Erythraean Sea, pp. 183-4. ² Political History of Ancient India, 4th Ed., p. 352.

³ Carmichael Lectures, 1921, p. 34.

⁴ Chap. 57, 39.

⁵ Bhīşmaparvan, IX, p. 373.

Udyogaparvan, XVIII, pp. 584-5.
 Vanaparvan, CLXXVII, 12350; Sāntiparvan, CCCXXVII, 12226-9.

people.¹ Their country was famous for a particular breed of horses.² The *Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa*³ mentions the Cīnas. A people called the Apara-Cīnas (Western Cīnas) is mentioned in the *Rāmāyaṇa*.⁴

The Pāli Buddhist literature refers to the kingdom of the Cīnas be which is situated far from the Andhakas, Muṇḍakas, Kolakas, etc. and to the China garment. According to the Milinda-Pañho, Cīna was as old as Ujjenī, Bharukaccha, Kośala, Magadha, Sāketa, Suraṭṭha, etc. The same text further points out that a king of China who when he wanted to charm the great ocean performed an act of truth at an interval of four months and then he entered into the great ocean on his chariot drawn by lions (sīharathena). In front of his chariot the mighty waves rolled back and flowed once more over the spot as soon as he left it (p. 121). The Mahāvastu be refers to the assembly of the Cīnas who were bound by its decision.

The Tukhāras are mentioned in the Mārkandeya Purāņa (LVII, 39) along with the Kāmbojas, Daradas, Barbaras and Cīnas, all of whom are described as 'races of men outside' (vāhyato narāḥ). The Vāyupurāṇa (XIV, 118) reads Tuṣāras instead, meaning of course the same people. They are mentioned in the Mahābhārata both as Tukhāras as well as Tusāras. 10 The Tukhāras are also mentioned in the Rāmāyana.11 From the Vanabarvan of the Mahābhārata the Tukhāras seem to have been an outside northern race bordering on the Himalayas. The Harivamsa groups them along with the Sakas, Pahlavas, Daradas and others who are all branded as Mlecchas and Dasyus. Strabo (XI, 515) says: 'The best known of the nomad tribes are those who drove the Greeks out of Bactria,—the Asii, the Pasiani, the Tochari, and the Sacarauli, who came from the country on the other side of the Jaxartes, over against the Sacae and Sogdiani, which country was also in occupation of the Sacae.' Lassen identifies the Tukhāras with this Tochari tribe and locates them on the north of the Hindu Kush. 12 The geographer Ptolemy mentions the Tokeroi, who are doubtless identical with the Tukhāras as an important element of the Bactrian population. The Periplus of the Erythraean Sea seems to point to the same people when it speaks of 'the warlike nations of the Bactrians'. The Tukhāras continued as a tribe till

¹ Udyogaparvan, XVIII, pp. 584-5.

⁸ Chap. 57, 39.

⁵ Cīnaraṭṭhā, Apadāna, II, p. 359.

⁷ Trenckner Ed., pp. 327-8, 331.

⁹ Sabhāparvan, L, 1850.

¹⁰ Vanaparvan, I.I., 1991; Sāntiparvan, LXV, 2429.

¹¹ Kişkindhyā Kānda, XLIV, 15.

¹² Ind. Alt. Map.

² Ibid., I₄XXXV, 3049.

⁴ Kiskindhyā Kānda, XLIV, p. 15.

⁶ Cīnāpattuņņā, Apadāna, I, p. 2. 8 Vol. I, p. 171.

the ninth and tenth centuries of the Christian era when they seem to have played an important part in the history of Kashmir.

The Vāyupurāna reads Sahasas and Sāsvatas instead (XLV, 130); but these names are not identifiable. The Sārasvatas are of course the people dwelling along the Sarasvatī, the river that flows into the sea past Prabhāsa, i.e. modern Somnath.¹

The Aśvakūṭas, as it is given in the Mārkandeya Purāṇa (p. 57, 32), is obviously a misreading, for the Vāyupurāṇa reads Kisaṣṇas, Kisaṣṭas or Kisadyas instead (XLV, 110), while the Matsya (CXIII, 35) reads Kirātas. We have, however, no other evidence to show that the Kirātas were in the Madhyadeśa. Epic and Pauranic tradition places them in the eastern region.

Particulars of the tribe called Kulyas are not known. It may be possible that they were the same people as the Kulutas, a republican community, who are mentioned in inscriptions of about the first century A.D. The Kulutas dwelt in the Punjab with such tribes as the Mālavas, Yaudheyas, Ārjunāyanas, Udumbaras, Kunindas and others.

The Vāyupurāṇa reads Magadhas and the Matsya reads Mūkas.

Both are evidently misreadings, for the Magadhas are mentioned as an eastern people in the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa (Chap. 57, verse 44). Pargiter ² suggests that the reading should be Malajas. The Malajas are mentioned in the Mahābhārata ³ and in the Rāmāyaṇa.⁴ The course of the journey taken by Viśvāmitra and Rāma, as described in the Rāmāyaṇa, seems to show that they were neighbours of the Kārūṣas and occupied the district of Shahabad, west of the Sone.⁵

The Bodhas are mentioned in the *Mahābhārata* and perhaps also in the *Rāmāyaṇa* as Bodhis. These people were probably located somewhere in the eastern districts of the Punjab.

The reading Bāhyas of the *Matsyapurāṇa* seems to be wrong, for this name is not found elsewhere unless we take them as identical with the Bāhīkas.

The Vāyupurāṇa reads Daśamāṇikas (XLV, 117) while the Matsya reads Daśanāmakas (CXIII, 42). The Bhīṣmaparvan list, however, agrees with the

¹ Vanaparvan, IXXXII, 5002-4; Salyaparvan, XXXVI, 2048-51.

² Mārkandeya Purāna, p. 309.

⁸ Bhīsmaparvan, IX, 357.

⁴ Ādi Kāṇḍa, XXVII, 16-23. ⁵ Ibid., pp. 8-16.

<sup>Sabhāparvan, XIII, 590 and Bhīşmaparvan, IX, 347.
Ayodhyā Kānda, ĻXX, 15.</sup>

Mārkandeya Purāna in giving the above reading. We cannot, how-

ever, identify or locate the people.

The Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa gives a list of peoples (Vāhyatonarāḥ) who evidently dwelt on the borders of India. Among these mention is made of the Kāmbojas, Daradas, Barbaras, Harṣavardhanas, Cīnas and Tukhāras. Instead of Harṣavardhanas, the Vāyupurāṇa reads Priya-laukikas. But there is no clue whatsoever to the identification of these names.

The Vāyupurāṇa reads Kaśerukas and Matsya Daserakas instead. But none of them can be identified satisfactorily. Daserakas are, however, mentioned

in the Mahābhārata 1 as taking part in the Kurukṣetra war.

The Hamsamārgas are mentioned in the Mārkandeya Purāna as also in the Bhīsmaparvan list of the Mahābhārata. According to the Matsyapurāṇa, the river Paosni flowed through the countries inhabited by Tamaras and Hamsamārgas. The description of the Matsyapurāṇa seems to locate the two tribes in the region east of Tibet.

The Vāyupurāṇa reads Ahukas or Āhūkas instead. They may be the same as the Kurus of the Matsyapurāṇa who are said to have dwelt on the Indus (CXX,

46-8).

The name Satapatha is unintelligible and obviously erroneous.

Satapatha

Paṭaccara is indeed a better reading, for a people of this name is found in the Mahābhārata.²

The Matsyapurāṇa reads Ātta-khaṇḍikas or Cātta-khaṇḍikas and the Bhīṣmaparvan list of the Mahābhārata (IX, 355) Carmamaṇḍalas instead. These names are not identifiable. Pargiter's suggestion of its identification with Samarkand is interesting.

For Gabalas, the $V\bar{a}yu$ and Matsya $Pur\bar{a}nas$ read Yavanas, which undoubtedly is the correct reading (for details see

Gabalas Yonas or Yavanas).

The Satadrujas are the people who dwelt along the river Sutlej.

The Vāyupurāṇa reads Śakas and Hradas (XLV, 116), the Matsya reads Śakas and Druhyas instead. The Śakas were a well-known people who left their traces on Indian history. They were at first a northern or north-western people but later on they extended their dominions to the south, east and west. They are known to have established royal families as far east as Mathurā (Muttra) and as far south and west as Ujjain and Surāṣṭra

Bhīşmaparvan, I., 2080; CXVIII, 5483; Dronaparvan, XI, 397; XX, 798.
 Sabhāparvan, XIII, 590-91; XXX, 1108; Virāṭaparvan, I, 11-2.

(Kathiawar). The Hradas cannot be identified. The Druhyas were undoubtedly an ancient people being mentioned as Druhyus in the *Rgveda* along with the Anus.

For the Urṇas, the Vāyupurāṇa reads Purāṇas. None of these names can, however, be identified with any amount of precision unless we find in the Urṇas a people inhabiting the Urṇadeśa which Lassen places on the Sutlej near Garhwal (Ind. Alt. Map).

The Mahābhārata associates the Darvas with the Trigarttas, the Daradas and other northern tribes to the north of

the Punjab.¹

The name Bahu-bhadra is differently given as Bāhu-bādhas ² and Bālabhadras ³ in the *Mahābhārata*. The *Matsyapurāṇa* reads Kaṇṭakāras while the *Vāyu-purāṇa* reads Raddha Kaṭakas.⁴

The Traipuras are the people of Tripurī or Tripura which was both a city and a country. The city of Tripurī was the capital of the Cedi kingdom. It was a well-known city that derived its name from three cities or tri-pura once in possession of the asuras. In the time of the Guptas, Tripuri-viṣaya was formed into a province under a Viceroy. It roughly corresponded to the modern Jubbulpur region which was the ancient Cedi country.

The Gajāhvayas, according to the Kurmaniveśa section of the Mārkandeya Purāṇa, are located in the 'middle of the tortoise', along with the Udumbaras, etc.

Pargiter very ingenuously guessed that the Gajāhvayas were none other than the people of Hastināpura, the capital of the Kurus. By a play on the meaning of the word 'hastin', 'elephant', the city was also called Hastināpura, Gajapura, Gajāhvaya, Gajasāhvaya, Nāgapura, Nāgasāhvaya, etc.

The Parṇa-śavaras, located in the right foot of the tortoise, in the Kurmaniveśa section of the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa,¹⁰ were undoubtedly a tribe of the Śavaras. Presumably this particular section of the Śavaras used leaves of trees as their wearing apparel. A girdle of leaves serves as clothing of many aboriginal peoples of today and we have representations of such individuals in ancient Indian sculptures and paintings. The Parṇa-

¹ Pargiter, Mārkaṇdeya Purāṇa, p. 324 notes.

Bhīṣmaparvan, IX, 362.
 Cf. Vāyupurāna, XLV, 117; Matsyapurāna, CXIII, 42.

⁵ Sabhāparvan, XXX, 1164; Vanaparvan, CCLIII, 15246; Karṇaparvan, XXXIII and XXXIV.

⁶ Udyogaparvan, p. clxxvi, 6071. 7 Ādiparvan, p. cxiii, 4441 and 4460. 8 Ibid., 4461-2. 9 Ibid., p. cxxxi, 5146. 10 LVIII, 19.

śavaras are incidentally mentioned in the early Bengali Caryāpadas and evidently these were the people from whom was derived the conception of the goddess Parṇa-śavarī in Vajrayāna-Buddhism.

The Arbudas must have been the people dwelling on and around the Arbuda mountain which is generally identified with modern Mt. Abu which is the southern end of the Aravalli hills.

The Khasas are described in one place of the Markandeya Purāņa (LVII, 56) as 'parvatāśrayiņah' or dwelling along the mountains, and in another place as located in the middle of the tortoise along with the Salvas, Nipas, Sakas, Sūrasenas, etc. (LVIII, 6). Epic tradition as contained in the Mahābhārata brands them as a rude half-civilised tribe along with the Sakas, Daradas, etc. (Sabhāparvan, LI, 1859), while the Harivansa records the reason why they were considered as such. It says that the people were once defeated and degraded by King Sagara (XIV, 784) and were hence regarded as Mlecchas (XCV, 6440-1). Manu also says that they were originally Ksatriyas, but were later on degraded by the lapse of sacred rites and the absence of Brahmanas in their midst (X, 43-4). The Sabhāparvan of the Mahābhārata places the people near the river Sailoda between the Meru and Mandara mountains (LI, 1858-9). If the river Sailoda is the same as Sailodaka of the Matsyapurana (CXX, 19-23), then the Khasas seem to have originally settled somewhere in Tibet or further north-west. Much later, in historical times, the Khasas are mentioned with some other tribes in the inscriptions of the Palas and Senas of Bengal in such a way as to suggest that they enlisted themselves as mercenary troops in the army of the kings of those dynasties.

INDEX

1112	D2 k
Abars, 14	Ajātaśatru, 103, 110, 126, 127, 137, 139,
Abastanoi, 97	202, 239, 256, 305, 327, 328
	Ajaya, 276
Abbaya and are are	Ajita, 131
Abhaya, 202, 319, 328, 329	Akesines, 60, 61, 68, 82, 97
Abhayadeva, 304	Akitti, 188
Abhidhamalaga 73	
Abhimanus of or vor	Alaka, 184
Abhinanyu, 25, 27, 105	Alamvuṣā, 299
Abhirūpanandā, 253	Alakanda, 92
Abhinava, 74	Alasanda, 156
Abiria, 63, 80	Alberuni, 83, 345 Alexander, 10, 14, 16, 58, 60, 61, 62, 68,
Abu Mt., 342, 400	70 88 02 07 250
Achalgarh, 342	79, 88, 92, 97, 350
Adarsana, 379	Alexander's Haven, 92
Addhakāsī, 116	Alexandria, 156
Adeisathron, 379	Alhanadevi, 162
Adhisāmakṛṣṇa, 145	Alinas, 82
Adisadra, 34	Allahabad, 20
Adouphis, 154	Allakappa, 139
Adraistai, 75	Allan, 331
Adrijas, 75	Amarakantaka hill, 162
Adrikā, 46	Amarāvatī, 51
Aelian, 187	Ambā, 105
Agalappulai, 193	Ambālikā, 105
Aganagora, 93	Ambapālī, 305, 321, 328
Agastya, 187	Ambasakkhara, 315
Aggidatta, 22, 129	Ambastai, 97
Aghadip, 93	Ambastha Kāyasthas, 97
Agimitasa, 37	Ambasthas, 62, 66, 68, 73, 75, 91, 92,
Agni Vaiśvānara, 235	96, 97
Agnimitra, 37	Ambattha, 97, 254
Agniśikha, 106	Ambikā, 105
Agradvīpa, 93	Amita-Tosala, 386
Agrammes, 160	Amitraghāta, 208
Agriophagoi, 175	Amitratapana, 83
Ahicchatra, 33, 34, 37, 38, 44, 141	Amśumān, 123
Ahikṣetra, 34	Amūrtarājas, 285
Ahukas, 398.	Ananta, 74
Aikṣvākas, 125, 388	Anantapāla, Daņḍanāyaka, 65
Aila race, 71	Anaranya, 122
Aila, Rsi, 298	Anāthapindika, 128, 130
Ain-i-Akbari, 9	Anavas, 77
Aioi, 93	Andara, 166
Airrhadoi, 282	Andarae, 165, 166
Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, 19, 83, 96, 298	Andhaka-venhu, 43
Aiyangar, S. K., 2, 9, 50	Andhakas, 42, 167, 390, 396
Ajamīda dynasty, 33	Andhas, 165
Ajamidha, 11	Andhra, 51, 164
anjunaarpaari) an	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,

26B

Andhrabhrtyas, 157, 165	Aritthapura, 83
Andhradeśa, 165	Arjuna, 5, 6, 12, 25, 26, 27, 49, 58, 70,
Andhrāpatha, 164, 166	73, 75, 80, 95, 96, 119, 136, 138,
Andhrarakas, 164	145, 337
Andhras, 81, 157, 164, 165, 166	Arkakshetra, 336
Andhravākas, 164	Arkalingas, 158, 383
Andhra-Vaisayika, 167	Arkatos, 188
Anenāh dynasty, 105	Arrian, 14, 40, 61, 62, 82, 97, 395
Anga, 22, 26, 31, 110, 118, 138, 139,	Art, Semi-Hellenistic, 45
140, 158, 159, 201, 204	Arthaśāstra, 4, 37, 57, 92, 96, 106
Angas, 10, 11, 99, 158, 387	Artisans, 314
Angīrasa, 238	Arun, 283
Angulimāla, 13, 131	Aruņa, 159
Anipa, 389	Aruni, 140
Anitthigandhakumāra, 131	Aryan, 78, 82
Añjana-Vaniya, 320	Asadisadāna, 128
Anuvinda, 337, 338	Asaka, 185
Añjanavasabha, 28	Asamañjas, 122, 123
Annajas, 389	Asanga, 13
Antar-giri, 285	Asela, 189
Antaragiryas, 388	Ashtaka, 395
Antiochus the Great, 80	Asi, 102
Antiochus Theos, 155	Asii, 396
An-to-lo, 166	Asika, 185
Anu tribe, 77	Asiknī, 30, 97
Anulā, 169	Asita, 249
Anūpanivrit, 389	Asitañjana, 43
Anupiyā, 258	Aśoka, 7, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 35, 55, 58,
Anūpas, 389	103, 110, 137, 140, 155, 156, 160
Anurādhapura, 115 Anuruddha, 52, 116	256, et passim Aśokāvadāna, 287
	Aśmaka, 180, 181, 182, 183
Anus, 399 Apacara, 47	Aśmakas, 165, 180, 184
Aparagoyāna, 23	Assaka, 159, 167, 180, 181, 183, 184
Aparanta, 67, 99, 159, 350, 389	Assakas, 180, 181, 182, 183, 184
Aparāntaka, 79, 80	Assakenoi, 180, 181
Aparāntas, 391, 392	Assalāyana, 154
Aparāntakas, 151	Assapura, 47
Aparāntika, 392	Astakenoi, 395
Aparitas, 391	Aṣṭādhyāyī, 73
Apollonius of Tyana, 14	Astes, 14, 395
Arachosia, 155, 206	Aśvaghoṣa, 145
Arattai, 71	Aśvaka, 180
Aravāļar, 189	Aśvakūṭas, 397
Aravalli hills, 400	Aśvamedha sacrifice, see Sacrifice
Arbuda Mt., 400	Aśvapati, 54, 58, 77
Arbudas, 63, 79, 89, 350, 400	Aśvasena, 105
Argaru, 188	Asvins, 46
Aria, 155, 206	Atali, 254
Ariake, 392	Atharvas, 158, 383
Ariana, 206	Athena, 155
Aristapura, 83	Athens, 155, 156
Aristobothra, 83	Athens, Owls of, 155, 156
· -	

Atithi, 100 Atris, 151, 152 Atthakūlakā, 311, 326 Attock, 9 Audradeśa, 335 Audras, 335 Audumbaras, 90, 355 Augustus Caesar, 191 Aupamanyava, 54 Aupamānyava, 98 Aurasa, 86 Aurva, Rsi, 122 Avadānakalpalatā, 256 Avantas, 158, 383 Avanti, 41, 60, 100, 134, 136, 137, 138, 140, 185, 337 Avantiputto, 41 Avantis, 63, 337, 387 Avantivarman, 74 Ayodhyā, 38, 44, 119, 124, 125, 138, 146, 157, 237 Abhīra country, 80 Abhīras, 63, 76, 79, 80, 81, 86, 95, 151, 159, 350 Ādhakyas, 383 Adikot, 34 Adi-Rājā, 34 Adityagotra, 248 Adityasena, 213 Agaraju, 141 Ahir, 79 Ahirs, 79, 81 Āhūkas, 398 Akara-Avanti, 185 Akarāvanti, 185, 389 Alakamandā, 56 Aļāra-Kālāma, 289 Alarka Saunati, 105 Ambasthya, 96 Amrapālī, 308, 321 Ānanda, 106, 116, 130, 132, 143, 148, 149, 309, 310 Anartta, 389 Anava Ksatriyas, 96 Andhra country, 159 Andhras, 165 Apastamba, 11, 301 Apayā, 18, 21

Āpiśali, 60 Aptyas, 19 Āranyaka, Aitareya, 31 Āranyaka, Sānkhyāyana, 31, 195 Ārattas, 71 Āriyacakkavattī, 170, 191 Arjunāyanas, 44, 63, 75, 76, 90, 91, 95, Aryaraksita, 106 Aryāvarta, 63 Āsana-paññāpaka, 323 Astika, 28 Aśvalāyana Kauśalya, 118 Ātabyas, 81 Atavī, 383 Atavikas, 383 Āṭavyas, 383 Atreya, 152 Ātreyas, 151 Ātta-khaṇdikas, 398 Ayar, 189 Ayudha-jivi-samgha, 75 Ayurveda, 104 Bactria, 155, 396 Bactrian King, 17 Bactrians, 187, 396 Badarika monastery, 148 Badarikārāma, 147 Bahirgiras, 388

Bahu-Bhadras, 390 Baithan, 184 Baktria, 10 Baktriana, 282 Baktrioi, 71 Bala, 106 Baladatta, 136 Baladeva, 106 Balavarman, 286 Balhika Prātipīya, 20, 70 Bali, 158 Balkh, 70, 71 Bandhula, 261, 262 Banerjee, A. C., 62 Banerjee, R. D., 7, 8, 16, 17 Bangāladeśa, 263 Baranā, 102 Barbara, sea of, 92 Barbaras, 91, 92, 153

404 INDEX

Barbarei, 92	Bhagavati Gośrngi, 308
Barbaricon, 92	Bhagavatism, 42
Barbaricum, 92	Bhagga, 141, 147, 292, 293
Barbarika, 92	Bhaggas, 99, 292, 293
Bargaon grant, 286	Bhagiratha, 120, 123, 184
Barua, B. M., 115	Bhāgirathi, 33, 123
Barygaza, 175, 351	Bhalānasas, 82
Basaronagas, 188	Bhallika, 335
Basārh, 243	Bhāṇḍāgāra, 325
Basukund, 243	Bhānḍāgārika, 324, 325
Baudhāyana, 11, 82, 159, 301	Bhandarkar, D. R., 3, 9, 15, 50, 62, 80 ff.
Bāhīkas, 397	Bhañña, 335
Bāhiya, 169	Bharadvāja, 104, 152
Bāhu, 365	Bharadvājas, 151, 152
Bāhu-bādhas, 399	Bharaṇḍu-Kālāma, 289
Bāhyas, 397	Bharata, 14, 77, 105, 124
Bālabhadras, 399	Bhārata war, 125, 151, 153, 395
Bālāditya, 59	Bharatas, 18
Bāleya Brāhmanas, 158	Bhāratas, 106
Bāleya Kṣatra, 158	Bhāratavarṣa, 39, 50
Bālikā, 308	Bharga, 140, 141, 142
Bālikāchavi, 308	Bhargas, 73, 99, 292, 293
Bālikārāma, 308	Bhārgavas, 285, 293
Bāṇa, 64	Bharmāśva, 32
Bārāṇasī, 102, 103, 106	Bharuch, 391
Bārhadratha dynasty, 47	Bharukaccha, 175, 351, 391, 396
Bāṅglā, 263	Bharukacchas, 391
Bāvari, 129, 146	Bharhut gateways, 141
Beal, 13, 35, 55, 59, 83	Bhāsa, 138, 140, 197, 204
Beas, 72, 74, 90	Bhāṣkaravarman, 285
Bena, 327	Bhattasvāmī, 184
Benares, 15, 16, 51, 106, 107, 108, 109,	Bhattiya, 200
110, 111, 112, 115	Bhavacandra, 74
Besnagar, 386	Bhāvya, 10
Bettigoi, 97	Bhavayavya, 10
Betwa, 386	Bhesakalāvana, 147
Bhaddā, 197	Bhilsā, 63, 64, 65, 386
Bhaddā Kapilānī, 116	Bhīma, 49, 119
Bhaddavatī, 139	Bhimapāla, 17
Bhaddavatika, 148, 149	Bhimasena, 24, 48, 66, 104, 119, 136
Bhaddiya, 254, 319	Bhirukaccha, 391
Bhadrā, 106	Bhiru-kacchas, 391
Bhadrabāhu, 295	Bhisma, 26, 27, 40, 48, 57, 66, 73, 105
Bhadrakas, 394	Bhogas, 388
Bhadrakaras, 394	Bhogavadham, 393
Bhadras, 394	Bhogavardhanas, 165, 393
Bhadraśrenya, 104	Bhoja, 37, 57
Bhagadatta, 282, 284, 285, 305	Bhojadeva II, 52
Bhagadattarājakulajā, 286	Bhojas, 35, 88, 391
Bhagavadgītā, 20, 40	Bhojavarman, 281
Bhāgavata, 12	Bhrgu, 142
Bhāgavata religion, 42	Bhrgukaccha, 64, 351, 391
Bhagavati, 304	Bhrgukacchas, 385, 391
•	

Buddhacarita, 248
Buddhagayā, 44
Buddhaghosa, 110, 118, 127, 142, 146,
230
Buddhamitrā, 149
Duddhimitrā T40
Buddhimitrā, 149
Bulis, 287
Bunir, 10
Bur-Gaṅgā, 34
Burgess, 100
Byās river, 90
Caidya rājās, 49
Caidyas, 49
Caidya-Uparicara, 47
Caitya—
Bahuputra, 308, 317
Cāpāla 308, 317
Gautama, 308, 317
Kapinahya, 308, 317
Markața-hrada-tira, 308, 317
Saptāmraka, 308, 317
Sārandada, 317
Cakkhupāla, 111, 130
Cakra, 145
Cakrāyudha, 29, 35
Cakşu river, 384, 385
Cakşu stream, 92
Calingae, 163
Cambodia, 3
Cambyses, 3
Campā, 138, 201, 204
Campeyya, 201
Canda Pradyota, 137, 138
Candra dynasty, 269
Candragupta, 155, 160, 197, 206, 228,
347
Candragupta, II, 213, 349
Candragupta Vikramāditya, 228
Candras, 336
Candravarman, 70, 161
Candreśvaras, 285
Carlyle, 37
Carmakhandikas, 398
Carmamandalas, 398
Carmanvati, 33, 338, 379, 393
Caryāpadas, 400
Cālukya dynasty, 266
Cālukya Pulakeśirāja, 346
Cālukyas, 385
Catta-khandikas, 398
Cāvotakas, 349
Caulyas, 382
vamy as, 302

Cave country, 10	Sanjan, 272
Cedi, 32, 46, 47, 49, 50, 51, 65, 89, 105	Sunderban, 280
Cedi dynasty, 49, 52, 53	Tarpanadighi, 280
Cedirāṣṭra, 51	Cucukas, 174
Cedis, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 87,	Culanipiyā, 106
88, 89	Culika, 385
Cellanā, 327	Culikas, 152, 384
Central Asia, 45	Cunda, 260, 261 .
Cēran, 187	Cundațțhila, 115
Cerobothra, 194	Cunningham, 10, 14, 15, 17, 34, 37, 40,
Ceta dynasty, 161	42, 51, 55, 66, 74, 76, 77, 88, 90, 91,
Cetaka, 327	93, 102, 115, 136
Cetarattha, 51	Curtius, 60, 61, 97, 160
Ceti, 47	Cyāvana, 387
	Cyrus, 16
Cetiya, Pāsāṇa, 328 Chamba, 74	Cylus, 10
	Dabba a60
Chambal, 338, 379, 393	Dabba, 260 Dabbasena, 127
Chanda, R., 7, 44, 98	
Chandanā, 150	Daddarapura, 47 Dadhivāhana, 138
Chandra, 45, 70	
Chandrabhāgā, 82, 83	Dahala Mandala, 50
Chapadevi, 141	Dakhinabades, 382
Charitrapura, 336	Damaghosa, 48, 87
Chatta, 108, 133	Damaghoşasuta, 47
Chaukundi mound, 115	Damaghoṣātmaja, 47
Che-li-ta-lo, 336	Damayanti, 100
Chenab, 55, 58, 60, 68, 82	Damila, 168, 169, 188
Chen-shu-na, 240	Damilas, 168, 169, 170
Chera, 193	Damirica, 188, 194
Cherānd, 310	Damis, 14
Chêras, 186, 193	Daṇḍaka forest, 383
Chicacole, 159	Dandakappaka, 132
Chola country, 82	Dandakas, 81, 174, 383
Chola ruling family, 85	Daṇḍapāṇi, 137
Chrysei, 89	Dandin, 197
Cinas, 99, 395	Dantakura, 159
Ciratadatta, 279	Dantapura, 159, 182
Citrāngada, 24	Dantapuranagara, 159
Citta-Hatthisāriputta, 115	Dantavakra, 87
Cleisobora, 40	Daradas, 86, 152
Cola, 187	Dardae, 86
Cola dynasty, 187	Dardanoi, 86
Colas, 186, 187, 188, 189	Dardistan, 86
Copper plate—	Dardo, 86
Anulia, 280	Daradrai, 86
Asrafpur, 268	Darśaka, 204, 205
Belava, 276, 281	Darvā, 68
Damodarpur, 279	Darvas, 399
Edilpur, 280	Daśakumāracaritam, 84
Madhainagar, 272, 280	Daśamālikas, 397
Naihati, 276	Daśamānikas, 397
Pāhārpur, 279	Daśanāmakas, 397
Rāmpāl, 281	Daśaratha, 77, 117, 124, 210

24, 25, 26, 36,

INDIA	
Dofarno Tro 286	Dhruva-madhyamā dik, 135
Daśārņa, 159, 386	Dhulla plate, 281
Daśārnas, 101, 375, 376, 377	Dhundhu, Asura, 121
Daserakas, 151, 398	Dhundhumāra, 121
Dāhala, 53	Dīghāvu, 107
Dāṭhika, 169	Dighāyu, 107, 108
Dausyantas, 97	Dighiti, 107, 108
Deer-Park, 52, 114, 115, 143, 147	Digniti, 107, 100 Dilīpa, 119, 182
Delhi, 19, 21, 23	Diodoros, 61, 97
Demetrios, 17, 61, 210	Diodotos, 16, 17, 155
Derdai, 86	Dionysius Periegetes, 14
Devabhūti, 197	
Devadaha, 292	Dionysus, 154 Dipaṃkara, 15
Devadatta, 241	
Devagabbhā, 43	Dīpavaṃsa, 15, 21, 43
Devagiri, 382	Dīrghatamas, 105, 158 Dīrghatapas, 105
Devagupta, 64	Digiatapas, 105 Divākara, 124
Deva-kṣetra, 21	Divodāsa, 104, 105
Devapāla, 7, 334, 336	Divodasa, 104, 105 Divyāvadāna, 13, 69, 107, 112, 210
Devāpi Arstiseņa, 20	Divyavadana, 13, 09, 107, 112, 210 Diyadāta II, 16
Devendrasundarī, Srī, 65	Doab, 20
Dey, N. I., 9, 10, 34, 50, 54, 74, 83,	
84, 88	Douglas, R. O., 62
Dhamek, 115	Draupadī, 25, 34, 48
Dhammapada-Commentary, 22, 28, 29	Drāvidas, 334
Dhammapāla, 13, 29	Drāviḍas, 194
Dhammarakkhita, 160	Drdhavarman, 139
Dhamakada, 166	Droṇa, 27, 32, 33, 34, 36 Dṛṣadvati, 18, 21, 68
Dhanabhūti, 141	
Dhanaka, 51	Druhyas, 398, 399
Dhanakataka, 166	Druhyu, 12
Dhanañjaya, 28, 29, 110	Drupada, 5, 32, 33, 34, 35
Dhanañjaya Korabba, 40	Dubreuil, 78 Dudh-kosi, 283
Dhanañjayaseṭṭhi, 129	
Dhanapālagāma, 114	Duïpalāsa, 243, 244
Dhanvantari, 104	Dulva, 139 Dummukha, 36
Dhanvantariyanighantu, 92	
Dhānya-kaṭaka, 166	Duppasaha, 110 Durdama, 105
Dharasena, 81	
Dharma-kṣetra, 21	Durmukha, 31, 36
Dharma-mahāmātras, 13	Duryodhana, 5, 11, 12, 24, 25, 26,
Dharmamitra, 167	40, 58, 66, 73, 78, 84
Dharmapāla, 59, 65	Dușmanta, 32, 105
Dharmasāgaragani, 65	Dustarītu, 70 Dusyanta, 105
Dharmavivardhana, 13	Dutthagāmani, 149, 168, 169
Dharmavrddha, 105	
Dharur, 382	Dvaitavana forest, 39
Dhatarattha, 106, 159	Dvārakā, 2, 48, 80
Dhrsta dayuma ah ar	Dvārāvatī, 42, 66, 83
Dhristadyumna, 26, 35	Dvimidha, 32 Dvimukha, 36
Dhrstaketu, 48, 49, 50, 78, 87, 89, 105	Dvimukna, 30 Dwārkā, 99
Dhrtarāṣṭra, 11, 23, 24, 25, 28, 159	
Dhṛtarāṣṭra Vaicitravīrya, 31	Dynasty— Andhra, 197
Dhṛti, 12	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

Anenāh, 105	Gabalas, 153, 398
Bārhadratha, 47	Gahadavāla Govindachandra, 334
Candra, 269	Gaharwar dynasty, 37
Candra, 209	Cojahyoyan and ann
Cōla, 187	Gajāhvayas, 355, 399
Gaharwar, 37	Gajapura, 399
Haihaya, 51	Gajasāhvaya, 399
Kalacuri, 51, 53, 162	Gandak, 117
Kānva, 197	Gandarai, 10, 15
Kirāta, 283	Gandarioi, 10
Maurya, 197, 289	Gandhāra, 9 ff., 26, 54, 59, 70, 86
	Gandhāra Art, 17
Nanda, 205	
Pāla, 162, 266	Gandhāra, King, 15
Pradyota, 196	Gandhāran horses, 17
Sena, 162, 267	Gandhāras, 3, 7, 9, 12, 13, 24, 92
Şhāhiya, 17	Gandhāris, 9, 11
Siśunāga too	Gangaikonda-Colapuram, 186
Şolar, 246	Gangaridae, 160, 162
Sunga, 197	Gangaridae-Calingae, 162
Dyratiman	
Dyutimān, 49	Gangaridai, 93, 160
	Gangaridaes, 160
Edict—	Gange, 160
	Ganges, 20, 92, 93, 104, 113, 160
Kalinga I, 15	Ganges-Jumna Doab, 1
Kauśāmbī Schism Pillar, 137	Garh, Rājā Viśāl kā, 311
Minor Rock, 175	Gaud, 388
Rock XIII, 7, 155	Gauda, 7, 52
Eggeling, Julius, 235	Candon aro ff
Elzāmra 224	Gaudas, 270 ff.
Eļāra, 188	`Gautama, 153
Eliot, Sir Charles, 3, 19, 37, 41, 45	Gautami Balaśri, 389, 392
Ephathalites, 304	Gautamīputra, 389
	Gavaccha the Less, 148
Era—	Gavampati, 115
Gupta, 331	Gayā-Karņa, 162
Kalacuri, 52	Gändhäri, 24
Kṛta, 63, 64	
Licchavi, 331	Gāṅgeyadeva, 52, 53
Vikrama, 63	Geiger, 156
Erakapatta, 115	Gerini, Col., 187
Eran Epigraph, 213	Ghatotkacha Gupta, 211
Fulratides 187 and	Ghazni, 17
Eukratides, 187, 295	Ghosita, 139, 146, 147, 149, 150
Eusofzai, 9	Ghositārāma, 147, 148, 149
Euthydemos, 16, 17	Ghotamukha, 115
	Gijjhakūṭa, 215
To Uion to to to the total	Cirilatra 760
Fā Hien, 10, 13, 40, 84, 131, 143,	Giriloka, 169
et passim.	Girinagara, 156
Fatgarh, 34	Giriprastha, 100
Fausböll, 17, 28, 29, et passim	Girivraja, 47, 77, 196
Festival, Elephant, 113	Giriya, 169
Fick, 17, 99, 297	Girnar, 156
Fleet, 211, 331	Giryak, 77
Fo-li-shi, 240	
Houcher A 2 To	Godāvarī, 164, 167, 184, 383
Foucher, A., 3, 17	Go-Lāṅgulas, 382
Führer, 50	Goldstücker, 96

	INDEX	409
Gomati, 104 Gopāla, 336 Gotra— Āditya, 248 Bhāradvāja, 152 Gotama, 248 Kāśyapa, 298 Vāśiṣṭha, 298 Govaḍḍhamāna, 43 Govinda III, 272 Govindarāja, 295, 296 Graeco-Baktrian monarchy, 14 Greece, 45 Grahavarman Maukhari, 64 Grant— Amgachi, 279 Bāngarh, 279 Bāngarh, 279 Barrackpur, 280 Bhagalpur, 334 Khalimpur, 279 Manhali, 280 Nālandā, 279 Sena, 280 Sonpur, 335 Grierson, Sir George, 2 Guḍavamiśra, 334 Guhas, 174 Gunabhara, 186 Guptas, 211, 399 Gurjara, 334 Gurjaratrā, 65 Gurjara Pratihāras, 65, 272 Gurjaras, 349	Harṣavardhana, 37, 52, 6 Harṣavardhanas, 398 Harṣavarman Prāgjyotiṣa Haryaśva, 32, 33, 104 Hashtnagar, 15 Hasti, 14, 395 Hastikaśirṣa, 247 Hastināpura, 23, 25, 26, 26 Hatthipura, 47 Hārabhūṣikas, 364, 390 Hāramūrtikas, 390 Hārapūrikas, 390 Hekataios, 10 Hemachandra, 74, 263 Hephaestion, 395 Herakles, 82, 190 Herodotus, 10 Himayantam, 21 Hīnayāna, 35, 55, 115 Hinduism, 42 Hindukush, 2, 10, 80, 97 Hiraṇyakeśi, 11 Hiraṇya-Kaśipu, 47 Hiraṇyaparvata, 198 Hodgson, Capt., 35 Hoernle, 243, 244 Hoey, W., 310 Hopkins, 42 Horse-dealers, 17 Hoti Murdan, 9 Hradas, 399	., 286 27, 57, 145
Gutta, 168 Hagāmāsha, 44 Hagāna, 44 Haiḥaya race, 386, 393 Haihaya-Tālajaṅghas, 365 Haihayas, 6, 122, 136, 302 Halla, 202 Haṃsamārgas, 398 Haṃsavatī, 167 Harikelas, 263 Hariścandra, 122 Hariṣena, 162, 165 Harisvāmin, 144 Haritāśva, 333 Harivaṃśa, 3, 4, 6, 42, 75, 77, 104, 104 Harjara, 286 Harṣa, Srī, 162 Harṣacarita, 64 Harṣadeva, 162	Hsüan Tsang, 3, 10, 13, 55, 58, 64, 91, 115 Hūṇa, 58, 96 Hūṇas, 4, 17, 65, 67, 77 Huviṣka, 41, 44 Hydaspes, 60, 61 Hydrakai, 60 Hydrakes, 394 Hydraotes, 60, 61, 394 Hyphasis, 394 Hwui-lih, 55 Ibhyagrāma, 20 Idavida, 185 Ikṣvāku, 87, 110, 246 Ikṣvāku family, 56 Ikṣvākus, 78, 109 Ilā, 24 Ila-Sudyumna, 333 Indapatta, 28	14, 15, 34, 41,

	M. ha
Indapattana, 29	Mandasor, 63
Indo-Aryan Culture, 19	Mathurā nāga Statuette, 44
Indo-Aryan Society, 39	Mathurā stone, 296
Indo-Skythia, 351	Meharauli Iron Pillar, 70
Indo-Skythian Sus, 14	Modern local, found at Masār, 88
Indra, 19, 21, 46, 69	Muttra (Mathurā), 44
Indradatta, 81	Mysore, 176
Indraji, Bhagavanlal, 45	Nagpur Stone, 273
Indramitra, 44	Nānāghāt, 381
Indrapat, 23	Nāsik Cave, 63, 157, 389
Indraprastha, 23, 25, 28, 137, 237	Nepalese, 162
Indrarāja, 59	Nilgund, 272
Indies, five, 59	of the Kalacuri or Haihaya dynasty
Indumati, 197	of Cedi, 51
Indus, 9, 10, 14, 16, 17, 68, 70, 82, 86, 92	of Yasapāla, 145 .
Inscription—	old Persian, 9
Aihole, 162	on the gateway on the fort of Kara,
Ajantā, 176	141
Allahabad Iron Pillar, 81	Piṭhāpuram, 273
Allahabad Pillar, 55, 63, 70, 76, 94,	Ranganātha, 373
	Sagartal, 65
95, 383	
Allahabad Stone Pillar, 296	Sānchi, 393
Apshad, 271	Sārnāth, 213
Arulala-Perumal, 373	Shorkot, 83
Aśokan, 155, 392	Silimpur, 274
at Pabhosā, 140	Sirur, 272
Bāḍal Pillar, 334	Susunia Rock, 70
Banskhera, 64	Tewar Stone, 65
Barhut, 144, 393	Tirumalai Rock, 336
Bheraghat, of Alhanadevi, 162	Udayagiri Cave, 356
Bhitari Stone Pillar, 296	Usavadāta's, 354
Bhuvaneśwar Stone, 334	Ionians, 153
Bihar Stone Pillar, 296	Iran, 71
Bijayagadh, 63, 76	Irāvatī, 83
Bilsād Stone Pillar, 296	Irāvatim, 71
Brāhmī, 38, 146	Iśānavarman, 165
Central Indian, of the sixth century	Ishukāra, 23
A.D., 94	Isidatta, 340
Deo-Baraṇark, 214	Isipatana Migadāva, 114, 115
Deopara, 273	Īśvara, 35
Garuḍa Pillar, 272	ľśvaradatta, 80
Gayā copper plate, 296	ľśvaradeva, 252
Gunda, 80	ľśvarasena, 80
Gwalior, 272	Isuyāra, 23
Harāhā, of the Maukhari king, 165	Ivory workers' Bazar, 112
Hāthigumphā, 178	
Hāthigumphā Cave, 161	Jacobi, 297
Jaunpur of Isvaravarman, 165	Jagayyapeta stūpa, 78
Jodhpur, 272	Jala, 103
Junagadh Rock, 63, 76, 80, 99, 156,	Jalalabad, 10
392	Jalalpur, 77
Kanheri, 71	Jālandhara, 74, 90, 91
Mahākūṭa Pillar, 385	Jāliya, 149
. , , , ,	15

Jambudīpa, 23, 36, 43	Jettuttara, 83
James Fergusson, 17	Jetuttaranagara, 51
Janaka, 20, 31, 236	Jeyyapura, 7
Janakapura, 237	Jhelum, 55, 58
Janamejaya, 28, 119	Jijňāsā, 74
Jānaṃtapi Atyarāti, 21	Jīvaka, 109, 110
Jarāsandha, 24, 42, 47, 48, 196, 199 ff.	Jñātṛkas, 243
Jaratkāru, 28	Jñeyamallakas, 285
Jarttikā, 71	Johiya Rajputs, 76
Jātaka—	Johiyabar, 76
Asātarūpa, 109	Johiyas, 76
Bhojājānīya, 103	Johnson, 74
Bhuridatta, 7	Jolly, 296
Brahāchatta, 133	Ju-lai, 310
Cetiya, 32, 47	Jumna, 20
Chaddanta, 57	Junnar, 382
Campeyya, 4, 201	Jyāmagha, 49
Dutiyapalāyi, 15	, , ,
Gandhāra, 13, 17	Kabul, 9, 10, 44, 93
Gandatindu, 36	Kaccāyana, 41
Gangamāla, 107	Kacchādi-gaṇa, 67
Ghata, 43	Kadambas, 166, 176
Jayaddisa, 23	Kaikeyas, 49, 78
Kālinga-Bodhi, 57	Kaikeyī, 77
Kumbhakāra, 11, 36	Kaimur hills, 83
Kunāla, 4	Kaināt inns, 63 Kairātas, 151
Kurudhamma, 28	
Kusa, 56	Kakṣivant, 158 Kakutstha, 121
Mahānāradakassapa, 69	
Mahāsīlava, 108	Kalābu, 110
Mahāummagga, 84	Kalacuri dynasty, 53, 162
Māra, 113	Kalacuri era, 52
Nimi, 69	Kalhana, 74
Palāyi, 16	Kalinga, 28, 51, 57, 159
Satapatta, 111	Kalingae-Gangaridae, 161
Sivi, 83	Kalinganagara, 158, 159, 161
Tipalatthamiga, 148	Kalingas, 5, 81, 90, 158, 174
	Kalinga-visaya, 161
Ummadanti, 83	Kalmāṣapāda, 24, 123, 180, 182
Vedabbha, 51	Ka-long-ka, 161
Vessantara, 17, 51, 83	Kalyānapura, 53
Jattararur, 83	Kamane, 351
Jātukarņi, 103	Kamaniyabhojas, 2
Jaxartes, 396	Kamauli grant, 286
Jayaddisa, 23	Kamboja horses, 4
Jayaghosa, 106	Kambojadeśa, 3
Jayantipura, 382	Kambujiya, 3
Jayapāla, 334	Kammāsadamma, 22, 23
Jayāpida, 271, 272	Kammāsadhamma, 22, 23, 29
Jayasimhadeva, 65	Kampil, 34
Jayaswal, 60	Kampilla, 36 •
Jentā, 321	Kamsa, 42, 48
Jenti, 321	Kanakavati, 149
Jetavana, 128	Kanakhala, 69

•	
Kanauj, 29, 52, 141	
Kandahar, 9	
Kangoda, 161	
Kangra, 74, 90	
Kanhārevata, 131	
Kaniska, 10, 14, 41	
Kanneti, 193	
Vante 193	
Kānta, 187, 188 Kaofu, 3	
Kapila, 32, 246, 247	
Kapilahvayapura, 248 Kapilavastu, 246	
Kapisena, 152	
Karandaka, 247	
Karandu, 159	
Kardameya, 71	
Karikāl, 189	
Karmanāśā, 88	
Karna, 3, 6, 11, 27, 35, 48, 101	i
Karnasuvarna, 336	
Karoura, 194	
Karukhdeśa, 88	
Karūsa, 47, 88, 89, 105, 159	
Karūṣadeśa, 88	1
Karūsas, 49, 50, 67, 73, 79, 87, 88, 89	1
Kaśmiras, 67, 73, 86	
Kaspapyros, 10	
Kassapa II, 169	
Kassapa Buddha, 111	
Kassapa thera, 168	
Kassapagotta, 133	
Kathāsaritsāgara, 69	
Katthavāhanagara, 113	
Kaurava, 5, 20, 27, 60, 86	
Kauravas, 24, 46	
Kauravya, 19, 20	- [
Kaurayāna, 19	
Kausalika, 106	
Kauśalyā, 119	
Kauśāmbeya, 144	į
Kauśambi, 38, 40, 44, 47, 50, 89, 136 ff.	-
Kauśāmbi-mandala, 141, 144	j
Kausika, 49	í
Kausurubindu, Predi, or Proti, 144, 149	
Kautilya, 4, 29, 37, 57, 322	i
Kākas, 76, 95, 356	
Kākavaṇṇa Tissa, 169	,
Kāla-ka-sarāi, 15	!
Kālakavana, 379	
Kālāmas, 287, 289	,
Kālañjara, 50, 51	!
Kālañjarapura, 51	
Kālasena, 125	Ì
,J	,

Kāli Sindhu, 379 Kālidāsa, 4, 156 Kālinadī, 93 Kālindī river, 93, 146 Kāliya, nāga, 44 Kāluvāki, 140 Kāmākhyā, 285 Kāmarūpa, 162, 282 Kāmarūpas, 99 Kāmboja, 3 ff., 70 Kāmbojas, 1 ff., 13, 77, 92 Kāmpīla, 33 Kāmpīlya, 32, 33, 34 Kāmsuvām, 64 Kāñcanapura, 159 Kāñchi, 186 Kāñchipura, 171, 188, 191, 194 Kānyakubja, 35, 52, 55 Kāpingalas, 355 Kāpiśa, 13, 14, 17, 334 Kārdama, 71 Kārdamaka Kings, 71 Kārdamaka Vaṃśa, 71 Kārkota Sankaravarman, 74 Kārtavīrya, 389 Kārttavīryārjuna, 337 Kāśa, 105 Kāśara, 105 Kāśī, 4, 49, 88, 89, 102 ff. Kāśi-candana, 112 Kāśi cloths, 112 Kāśigāma, 100 Kāśika, 60, 67 Kāśīnagara, 102 Kāśipura, 102 Kāśīs, 23, 50, 88, 102 ff., 158 Kāśi-vilepana, 112 Kāśmīr, 15, 21 Kāśya, 103, 105 Kāśyapa, 298 Kātyāyana, 18, 60, 71 Kāveri, 84, 186, 187, 189, 379 Kāveripattana, 171, 188, 191 Kāvirī-pattinam, 186, 188 Kāvya Mīmāmsā, 70, 77 Keilhorn, 85 Keith, 18, 98, 102 Kekaya, 78, 84, 118 Kekayas, 66, 68, 77, 78, 84, 89 Kelydna, 93 Ken river, 88 Kerala, 93, 193 Keralas, 81, 89, 90, 186, 193

Vorm to the	WP . 1 . 1
Kein, 13, 55	Koluka, 90
Kerobothros, 194	Koluta, 90, 91
Kesakaļāvana, 147	Komarti grant, 161
Kesaputta, 289	Kondota, 93
Keśin Dālbhya, 30	Kongoda, 335
Keśins, 289	Kongu-desa, 193
Ketalaputra, 193, 194	Konkon, 351, 389, 392
Ketalaputras, 188, 194	Kophen, 154
Kevala-jñāna, 106	Kophes, 10
Kevalas, 193	Koravya, 20, 22
Khalimpura, 35	Koryagaza, 93
Kharaparikas, 76, 95, 356	Kośala, 22, 26, 31, 49, 100, 103, 107,
Khāravela, 161	108, 109, 110, 111, 202
Kharosthī characters, 45	Kośala country, Sapta, 100
Khasa, 5	Kośaladevi, 126
Khasas, 65, 86, 285	Kośala-Videhas, 23
Khaṭvāṅga, 123, 124	Kośalas, 50, 89, 101
Khemā, 133	Kosam, 136, 143, 144, 146
Khemiyambavana, 115	Kosamba, 145
Khīradhāra, 132	Kosambeyaka, 144
Khoaspes, 10	Kosambi, see Kauśāmbi,
Kiao-shang-mi, 145	Kosambika, 142
Kien-to-lo, 10	Kōśar, 188
Kiki, III	Kota, 62
Kiļli, 187	Kotoch, 74
Kimpurusha, 333	Kraivya Pañcāla, 30, 33
Kimpurusna, 333	Kramadeśvara, 345
K'in-lu-to, 91	Veimila 22
Kirāta dynasty, 283	Krimila, 32
Kirātas, 84, 92, 151, 153, 282, 283	Krivis, 30
Kirrhadoi, 282	Kṛki, III
Kirrhadia, 282	Krmila, 75
Kirrhodoeis, 282	Krodhavasa group, 151
Kisadyas, 397	Kṛṣṇā, 25, 26, 27, 34, 42, 44, 48, 50,
Kisāgotamī, 131	66, 80, 87, 105, 164
Kisastas, 397	Kṛṣṇagupta, 64
Kistnā, 51	Kṛṣṇapur, 40
Kitāgiri, 114	Kṛta era, 63, 64
Kiu-lu-to,-90	Kṛtamālā, 190
Kling people, 163	Kṛtavarma, 138
Koch, 8	Kṣatradeva, 36
Koh-i-Mor, 154	Kṣatradharma, 36
Kokalladeva I, 52	Kṣatrapas, 80
Kokanada, 111, 141	Kṣemadhanvā, 5
Kola, 110, 290	Ksemaka, 104, 105, 137
Kola tree, 291	Kṣudraka, 61
Kolakas, 167	Kṣudrakas, 60, 61, 96
Kolambālaka, 169	Kukkuta, 146, 149
Kolanagara, 290	Kukkutaka, 98
Kola-Pattana, 188	Kukkutārāma, 147, 197
Koli, 247	Kukura, 295, 389
Koliyas, 110, 247, 287, 290 ff.	Kukuras, 389
Kolkai, 190	Kulācalas, 378, 379
Kollāga, 307	Kulaparvatas, 378, 379

Kulaśekhara, 170 Kulatas, 90 Kulikas, 65 Kulindas, 90, 91, 92 Kulindrine, 91 Kullu, 90 Kulluka, Bhatta, 295 Kulu, 90 Kulūtas, 90, 91 Ku-lu-to, 90 Kumāradevi, 330 Kumāragupta, 64 Kumāragupta III, 165 Kumārakassapa, 132, 133 Kunar, 10 Kundadana, 254 Kunda-dhana, 128, 131 Kundapura, 307 Kunindas, 90, 91 Kuntala, 166, 176, 177 Kuntalas, 81, 90, 158, 176 Kunti, 57 Kuntila, 176 Kūpaka, 193 Kuru, 6, 11, 22, 24, 28, 32, 47, 56, 57, 68, 89, 103, 105 Kuru Army, 12, 27, 34 Kurudhamma, 28 Kurudipa, 21 Kurukșetra, 4, 5, 6, 12, 18, 19, 20, 21, 24, 26, 27, 34 Kurukșetra War, 35, 40, 49, 57, 58, 60, 65, 68, 77, 78, 84, 89, 96, 100, 105 Kuru-Pañcāla, 19, 20 Kuru-Pañcāla land, 20, 23 Kuru-Pañcālas, 20, 30, 31 Kuru people, 21 Kurumbar, 189 Kururattham, 22, 23 Kurus, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 29, 30, 31, 33, 35, 68, 96 Kurutas, 90 Kuruvāhyas, 355 Kuruśravana, 18 Kuśa, 56, 100, 124, 125, 144 Kusāmba, 136, 144 Kuśasthali, 124 Kuśāvatī, 56 Kuśerukas, 151, 152 Kushanas, 17 Kuśinārā, 133 Kusthalapura, 212 Kusumapura, 205

Kūtāgārasālā, 308, 309 Kuvalavāśva, 121 Lakkhanamantam, 114 Laksmana, 36, 124, 237, 305 Laksmanasena, 162 Laksmikarna, 162 Lalitavistara, 40, 43, 112, 113, 322 Lalliya, 17 Lambagae, 152 Lambatai, 86, 93 Lamghan, 10, 86, 93 Lampāk, 86 Lampākas, 93, 151, 152 Laṅkā, 168, 171, 191 Lassen, 97, 100, 152, 399 Laufer, B., 11 Lauhitya, 286 Lava, 124 Lavana, 42 Law, B. C., 2, 103, 106, 114, 115 Lāda, 352 Lāļa, 352 Lāludāyi, 131 Lār, sea of, 351 Lāri, 351 Lārika, 175 Lārike, 175, 351 Lāṭa, 175, 177, 351 Lāṭa-deśa, 60, 175, 351 Lāṭa-viṣaya, 351, 352 Lāṭas, 351, 352, 353 Läteśvara, 352 Lātika, 352 Lecchai, 294, 295 Lecchaki, 295 Lecchavi, 294, 296 Lefmann, 43, 113 Legge, 13, 14, 15, 41 Lhāsā, 303 Licchavayah, 331 Licchavi, 119, 294, 297, 300 Licchavis, 125, 294 ff., 388 Licchavigana, 315 Licchavikula-ketu, 206 Licchivi, 294 Lichavi, 295 Li-ch'e-p'o, 296 I₄omaśā, 10 Lona-śobhika, 45 Long, 282

Lotus palace, 147

Lumbini Garden, 248

Lumbinigrāma, 248

Maccha-Sürasena, 135 Macchas, 39 Macchikāsanda, 114 Macco-Calingae, 162 McCrindle, 3, 14, 15, 34, 35, 60, 61, 91, 92, 93, 97 Macdonell, 25, 98, 102 Macedonians, 82 Madayanti, 180, 182 Maddā, 327 Madgurakas, 388 Madhainagar grant, 162 Madhu, 42 Madhurā, 39, 40, 43, 341 Madhuvan, 64 Madhyadeśa, 1, 20, 21, 33, 71, 84, 99 Madhyamā dik, 31 Madhyamandala, 198 Madhyamikā, 83 Modokalinga, 160 Madra, 1, 54, 55, 57, 59 Madragāra Saungāyani, 1, 54 Madraka, 84 Madrakas, 54, 75, 76, 80, 95, 153 Madrakāra, 67 Madras, 9, 40, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 67, 84, 101 Magā, 198 Magadha, 16, 22, 24, 31, 42, 47, 59, 77, 88, 89, 103, 109, 110, 195 ff. Magadhas, 10, 11, 195 ff., 397 Magaya, 62 Magojaya, 62 Mahābhārata, 2, 4, 5, 6, 11, 12, 21, 24, 32, 34, 35, 39, 40, 46, 47, 49, 50, 51, 57, 58, 60, 62, 66, 69, 74, 76, 77, 79, 80, 83, 84, 86, 87, 90, 91, 92, 95, 96, 100, 104, 105 Mahābhāsya, 60, 62, 79 Mahābhiṣeka, 19, 21 Mahābhojas, 178 Mahācunda, 52, 116 Mahādhanasetthi, 112 Mahāgangā, 169 Mahāgovinda, 106 Mahājanapadas, 3, 22, 36, 40, 50, 54, 60, 106, et passim Mahākaccāyana, 22, 41, 116, 140, 148, 340 Mahākāla; 341 Mahākaṃsa, 43

Mahākośala, 22, 109, 126, 129, 202 Mahākotthita, 115, 116 Mahākṣatrapa, 80 Mahāmandhātā, 23 Mahāmārga, 119 Mahāmātra, 316, 320 Mahāmāyā, 249 Mahāmoggallāna, 116 Mahāmucala, 239 Mahānāma, 313 Mahānandin, 196, 205 Mahāpadma Nanda, 160, 392 Mahāpajāpati Gotamī, 130, 131, 253 Mahāpatāpa, 238 Mahārakkhita, 7, 156 Mahārāṣṭra, 81, 159, 389, 392 Mahārathis, 178 Mahāsāgara, 43 Mahāsammata, 239, 246 Mahāsāṅghika system, 167 Mahāsenagupta, 64 Mahāsilākantaga, 204 Mahāsīlava, 108 Mahāśivagupta Yayāti, 335 Mahāsthān, 44, 278, 279 Mahāsuvanna, 130 Mahātittha, 169 Mahāvana, 312 ff. Mahāvamsa, 57, 115 Mahāvastu, 4, 248, 312, 317 Mahāvīra, 15, 106, 125, 150, 243, 244, 318 Mahāyānism, 13 Mahendra, 56, 378 Mahendri, 51 Mahī river, 64, 65, 379 Mahidhara, 98 Mahinda, 342 Mahipāla, 8, 90, 279, 363 Mahipāladeva, 52 Mahirakula, 59 Mahisāsakas, 13 Mahismān, 105 Mahiyangana, 168, 169 Mahmud, Sultan, 17 Mahmud of Ghazni, 361 Maithilas, 392 Maitrakas, 64, 65, 345 Majumdar, R. C., 55 Majumdar, S. N., 83, 92, 97, 102 Majupa, 62 Makala Kokf, 198 Makata, 198

Makhādeva, 239	Maurya dynasty, 197, 206
Makran, 206	Mauryas, 188, 210, 288
Makuṭa Bandhana, 259, 261	Mausikāra, 384
Malajas, 397	Max Müller, 3, 37
Malakas, 158, 397	Mayidavolu, 164
Malalasekera, G. P., 103, 110, 114, et	Mayojapa, 62
	Mayūravyamśakādigaṇa, 3
passim.	Wadharramenta 64
Malanga, 188	Mādhavagupta, 64
Malapa, 380	Mādhavavarman, 162, 165
Malayas, 63	Mādhavi, 104
Malcolm, 99	Māgandiya, 139
Maleus Mt., 335	Māgha, 160
Malla, 133, 135	Māheyas, 391
Mallai, 60	Māhi river, 391
Mallakis, 125	Māhikas, 391
Mallas, 257 ff.	Māhiṣakas, 159, 386
Malli, 60, 160	Māhişikas, 364, 386
Mallikā, 125, 126, 128, 252	Māhiṣiki, 386
	Māhiṣmakas, 386
Mallikārāma, 128	
Malloi, 60, 61, 62	Māhismatī, 99, 194, 383, 386, 387, 392
Mallus, 160	Māhissati, 386
Malwa, 50	Mākandikā, 139
Mambarus, 392	Māladas, 89, 388
Mandaei, 160	Mālaka, 380
Mandāra, 91	Mālava, 60, 62, 64, 65, 380
Mandasor, 63, 64, 380, 392	Mālavakāhāra, 64
Mandavya, 142, 143	Mālavānām Jayah, 62
Mandhātā region, 386	Mālavas, 60, 62 ff., 75, 76, 79, 86, 90,
Mandissa, 149	91, 95, 96, 393, 397
	Mālavikāgnimitra, 157
Manoja, 127	
Manorhita, 131, 132	Mālaya, 62, 63, 378
Manu, 20, 24, 33, 39, 87, 97, 98, 100, 189,	Mālinī, 199
265	Mālukas, 380
Manu Samhitā, 4, 33, 39, 265	Māmūlanār, 188
Mapaya, 62	Māna, 169
Maroundai, 93	Mānagṛha, 332
Martin, 88	Mānava, 298
Maru, 49, 389	Mānavadharma Šāstra, 39
Marunda, 93	Mānava-vaṃśa, 24
Marundai, 93	Mānadas, 388
Marziana, 10	Māndhātā, 120, 121, 122
Maśakāvati, 180	Mānikyāla tope, 15
Masār, 88	Mānusāra, 197
	Martilaara, 19/
Massanoi, 350	Mārtikāvata, 66
Massaga, 180	Mārukas, 380
Mas'ūdi, 351	Mātali, 69
Mathurā, 33, 39, 40 ff., 87, 398	Māṭhara family, 161
Matsya, 12, 25, 47, 87, 357	Māṭharas, 363, 390
Matsyas, 20, 25, 31, 33, 35, 40, 49,	Mātsyanyāya, 336
50, 66, 88, 89, 357 ff.	Māyā, 250
Mauleyas, 383	Mech, 8
Maulikas, 165, 383	Megasthenes, 40, 42, 207, 394
Maunikas, 383	Meghasandhi, 199
, , , , ,	

Mekala country, 100 Mekala hill, 97, 374 Mekala Kalingas, 162 Mekalādri, 374 Mekalāmbastha, 97 Mekalas, 90, 97, 101, 333, 374 Mekhalāmuṣṭa, 97, 374 Menander, 44, 58 Mendakasetthi, 129 Meru Mt., 91, 379 Migadāya, 115 Mihirakula, 58 Milinda, 44, 58, 71 Milindapañho, 41, 55, 56, 265 Minnagar, 92 Minnagara, 392 Mithi, 238 Mithilā, 52, 119, 237 ff., 321 Mitra, 37 Mitradeva, 103 Mitrasaha Saudāsa, 123 Miträtithi, 18 Mitravarma, 36 Mittasena, 169 Mleccha country, 12 Mleccha tribes, 93 Modagiri, 388 Modo-Galingae, 173 Modubae, 173 Moggallāna, 129 Moggaliputta Tissa, 41 Moha river, 64 Mo-hi-lo-kiu-lo, 59 Möhür, 188 Mokala, 99 Mo-ki-to, 198 Mo-la-po, 64, 65 Molindae, 80 Molini, 102 Monedes, 335 Mophis, 351 Moredes, 93 Moriya, 206, 287, 288 Moriyanagara, 256 Möriyar, 188 Morounda, 93 Moroundai, 93 Mote-Hall, 255 Mousikaroi, 350 Mousikenos, 384 Mrgāvati, 138 Mrisikas, 384 Mrttikāvatī, 66

Mucala, 239 Mūchipa, 384 Mūcipas, 173 Muchiri, 193 Mucukunda, 386 Mudakaras, 388 Mudgalāśrama, 388 Mudgagiri, 388 Mudgala, 32 Mudrārāksasa, 206 Muir, 98, 99 Mūjavants, 10 Muka-Kalingas, 163 Mūkas, 397 Mukhalingam, 160, 161, 163 Mukhya Kalingāh, 160 Mukula, 32 Mūlaka, 123, 167, 184, 185, 383, 389 Mūlakas, 184 ff. Munda, 197, 198, 205 Mundakas, 167, 306 Mundās, 93 Munika, 196 Muralas, 90 Murāri, 53 Muru, 284 Murunda, 93 Murunda-Svāmini, 94 Murundai, 93 Murundas, 93 Mūṣakas, 384 Mūshika, 173, 193 Musi, river, 173, 384 Musikanagara, 384 Mūsikas, 384 Mūtibas, 164, 173 Muttra, 45 Mūvipa, 384 Mūvipas, 173 Muziris, 193

Nagarvinda, 129 Nagnajit, 11 Nahapāna, 63, 392 Nahuṣa, 21, 24 Nahuṣa family, 105 Naimisiya sacrifice, 31 Nairṇikas, 179 Naiṣikas, 165, 179 Nakula, 73, 96 Nala, 100, 389 Nalakapāna, 132 Nanda, 131, 249

Nandā, 253	Nigantha Nātaputta, 231
Nanda Dynasty, 176	Nigrodhārāma, 254
Nandagopā, 43	Nikāya—
Nandaka, 130, 320	Anguttara, 22, 29, 36, 41, 50, 52, 60,
Nandana Toh	103, 109, 114, 115
Nandana, 106	Digha, 22, 52, 103, 110, 114
Nandas, 137, 188, 197	
Nandisena, 182, 183, 202	Majjhima, 22, 29, 41, 114, 115
Nandivardhana, 137, 205	Samyutta, 29, 36
Nandupanandā, 254	Nila range, 379
Nanduttarā, 22	Niliya, 169
Naraka, 284	Nilkantha, 362
Narakāsura, 285	Nimi, 159
Narasimha I, 334	Nineveh, 14
Narasimhagarh, 95	Nīpa, 33
Narasimhapur, 95	Nipura, 247
Naravarman, 63	Nirāmitra, 137
Narmadā, 97, 175, 351, 392	Nirukta, 1, 20, 98
Nasik, 179, 392	Nirvakta, 145
Nasik Praśasti, 380	Niṣada, 98
Nausārī, 351	Niṣāda, 98
Nausaripa, 351	Niṣādas, 98, 99, 100
Navasārikā, 351	Niṣadha range, 379
Nābhāga, 87, 88	Niṣadhas, 97, 100, 101
Nābhānediṣṭha, 88	Nisibis, 303, 304
Nāga, 34	Nītisāra, 206
Nāga Dāsaka, 205	Nṛga, 88
Nāgāhva, 399	Nysa, 154, 155
Nāgamuṇḍā, 251	Nysaeans, 154, 155
	11,50000000, 104, 100,
Nāgapura, 399	Odantapuri, 232
Nāgar, 63	Odda country, 336
Nāga-rāja, 35	Odda-vişaya, 336
Nāgarī, 64, 83	Odivića 226
Nāgārjunikoṇḍa, 78	Odiviśa, 336
Nāgas, 392	Odra, 161, 162, 335
Nāgasāhvaya, 399	Odrā, 335
Nālandā, 230, 231, 232	Odras, 335
Nāma-Vāsakas, 382	Odra-visaya, 336
Nārada, 69, 197	Ohind, 15, 17
Nārāyaṇapāla, 334	Okkāka, 56, 110, 246
Nārāyaṇapāladeva, 167	Okkalas, 335
Nārīkavaca, 123	Oldenberg, 43, 69, 135, 297
Nāsikyas, 179	Oligarchy, 321
Nāsikyāvas, 179	Oļiyar, 189
Nātha clan, 243, 244	Opura, 247
Nāya clan, 243, 307	Oretes, 335
Nāyaka, 324	Orissa, 335
Nedungilli, 187	Orosius, 97
Nedun-jeliyan, 192	Otantapuri, 232
Nemicakra, 145	Ouindion, 379
Neru, 239	Ouxenton, 379
Nesāda, 113	Oxus river, 282, 385
Nicakşu, 136, 137, 145	Oxydrakai, 60, 61, 62, 394
Nicchivi, 295, 303	Ozene, 175, 351
27B	
~ (P	

Pātaliputra, 140, 160, 188, 205, 287, Prajāpati, 21 Pramaganda, 387 295, 331 Pātharghātā, 232 Prasenajit, 131, 137 Pāvā, 257 ff. Prasthalas, 394 Pāvārika, 146, 147, 149 Pratihāra, 141 Pratihāra dynasty, 363 Pāwāpuri, 258 Pāyāsi, 133 Pratipa, 24 Peithon, 61 Pratisthāna, 381 Pennār river, 172, 175 Pratyagraha, 49 Perdikas, 61 Pratyekabuddha, 36 Pravāhaņa Jaivali, 31 Perimuda, 187 Periplus, 63, 71, 79, 80, 92, et passim Pravangas, 387 Periyār river, 193 Pravijayas, 285 Persia, 38, 45, 71, 303 Pravira, 32 Peru-nar-Killi, 189 Prayāga, 20, 142, 144 Peshawar, 9, 14 Prācya Pañcālas, 32 Petavatthu, 2 Prāgiyotisa, 282, 284, 285 Petavatthu Commentary, 43 Prāgivotisapura, 285 Petenikas, 381 Prāgjyotisas, 284 ff. Pettanika, 382 Prāgjyotisesa, 286 Peukalei, 14 Prālamba, 286 Peukelaotis, 14, 15, 394, 395 Prātibodhi, 195 Pidikas, 384 Prāvrseyas, 285 Pilakkhaguhā, 140 Priyadarsikā, 139 Pilayamāra, 169 Privalaukikas, 398 P'i-lo-tu-lo, 13 Proklais, 15 Pindola Bhāradvāja, 130 Proti Kausurubindi, 149 Ping-ki-lo, 166 Prthivisena, I, 177, 267 Pipphalivana, 206, 288 Prthu, 195, 327 Piprāwā, 248 Prthvicandra, 74 Pistapura, 161, 162 Ptolemy, 15, 34, 40, 71, 75, 79, 80, 86, Pithāpuram, 161 91, 93, 97, et passim Pithiya, 169 Pubbavideha, 23 Pitinikas, 382 Pukkalaoti, 394 Pliny, 14, 15, 160, et passim Pukkusas, 174 Plutarch, 61, 160, 206, et passim Pukkusāti, 16 Pokhrana, 265, 266 Pulahattha, 169 Pokkharasādi, 128 Pulakesin II, 162, 187 Pokkharasāti, 128 Pulika, 196 Pulindakas, 174 Polamuru plates, 165 Po-lu-sha-pu-lo, 13 Pulindas, 152, 159, 165, 174 ff., 388 Posada, 125 Pulkusa, 98 Poshadha, 297 Pulkusas, 174 Po-shih-po, 279 Punach, 3 Potali, 159, 181 Punavadhana, 279 Potana, 181 Pundra, 158, 264, 267 Potthapāda, 128 Pundras, 158, 277 ff. Poulipoula, 351 Pundravardhana, 263, 267, 277 ff. Prabhākara, Rṣi, 152 Puudravardhanabhukti, 263, 269, 279 ff. Prabhākaravardhana, 64 Pun-na-fa-tan-na, 278 Prabhāsa, 354, 390, 397 Punnaka Yakkha, 40 Pracetā, 12 Pupphavati, 102 Pradvota, 137, 138, 196

Pūrana Kassapa, 320

Purandharas, 391 Puri, 336 Purikā, 383 Puru dynasty, 35 Purukutsa, 122 Pururavā, 24 Purus, 18, 42, 52, 109 Purusapura, 13, 14 Purusottama, 280, 336 Pūrvasthalis, 160 Pușkalas, 151, 152, 394 Pușkalāvatī, 14, 15, 394 Puskara, 14, 63, 392 Puşkarāvatī, 14, 15, 124, 394 Pusya, 124 Pusyamitra, 197

Quilāndi, 193 Quorum, 324

Rājapura, 3, 159

Raddha-Katakas, 399 Raghu, 4, 120, 124, 266 Raghunandan, 3 Raghuvaniśa, 4 Ramanas, 363 Ramațas, 363, 391 Ramathas, 90, 363, 390, 391 Rangeyas, 387 Rapson, 9, 10, 14, 16 ff., 20, 33, 44, 45, 50, 52, 58, 76, 80, et passim Ratanapura, 7 Ra(t)hamusala, 204 Rathikas, 364 Ratnaciida, 113 Ratnapāla, 386 Ratnarañjaka, 232 Ratnasāgara, 232 Ratnasikhi, 113 Ratnodadhi, 232 Ratthapāla, 22 Rawalpindi, 9 Ray, N., 64 Ray, H. C., 54 Raychaudhuri, H. C., 3, 42, 61, 69, 75, 76, 85, 95, 97, 100, et passim Rādha, 263 Rāhula, 116, 125, 148 Rājagṛha, 24, 77, 112, 146, 387 Rājahamsa, 197 Rājāmahendri, 51 Rājanighautu, 92 Rājanya-bandhu, 11

Rāja-rāja, 336 Rāja-śabda-upajivinah, 29, 37, 57, 295, Rājaśekhara, 70, 77, 90 Rājasūya Sacrifice, 2, 31, 40, 48 Rājataranginī, 74, 86 Rājāyatana tree, 335 Rājendra Cōla, 336 Rājuvula, 44 Rājyamati, 286 Rājvavardhana, 64 Rāma, 14, 110, 119, 124, 237, 397 Rāma Jāmadagnya, 66 Rāmagāma, 287, 292 Rāmapāla, 335 Rāmas, 363 Rāmāyana, 6, 34, 39, 63, 71, 77, 89, 90, 99, 100, 103, 134, et passim Rāmnagar, 34, 38 Rāpti, 235 Rāstrakūta Govinda, III, 65 Rāstrikas, 178 Rāvaņa, 122 Rāvi, 55, 60, 71, 74 Rennell, 10 Renu, 106 Republic, 321 Revā river, 380 Revata, 116 Rhys Davids, 2, 9, 39, 41, 50, 102, 133 Ripuñjaya, 196, 199 Risikas, 384 Rkṣa Mt., 32, 100, 379 Rohita hill, 269 Ruci, 238 Rudra Simha, 80 Rudradāman, 63, 76, 80, 99, 156, 392 Rummindei Pillar, 248

Sabagrae, 97 Sabaras, 81, 172 Sabarcae, 97 Sabaraticāro, 315 Sabbarattivāro, 315 Sacae, 396 Sacarauli, 396 Sacrifice—

Aśvamedha, 30, 33, 47, 118, 120, 122 Govinata, 103 Rājasūya, 40, 48, 119, 120, 122, 237 Viśvajit, 98 Sadānīrā, 117, 235

Sagara, 6, 43, 120, 122, 364, 385	Santhāgāra, 254, 323
Sahadeva, 27, 40, 136	Sarabha, 49
Sahaja, 49	Saradatta, 67
Sahajāti, 52	Sarāikālā, 9
Sahañcanika, 52	Sarajas, 393
Sahasrānīka, 138	Sarasvati, 18, 19, 21, 71, 79, 99, 124,
Saheth-Maheth, 130	151, 235, 350, 397
Sahya, 378	Sarkarākṣa, 1
Śailodā river, 91, 364	Śarmiṣṭhā, 24
Sailālaya, 285	Sarvānukramaņi, 18
Sailuşas, 382	Saryāti, 88
Saindhavas, 67, 344	
Sainikas, 384	Śaśāṅka, 270, 271
Saint-Martin, M. Vivien de, 91, 93, 310	Satadhanu, 239
Saisunāgas, 392	Satadru, 71, 91, 158
	Satadrujas, 398
Saivya, 105	Šatānīka, 103, 137, 138
Sajjanela, 292	Śatapatha, 398
Šaka, 14	Śateraka, 71
Saka-Murundas, 94	Satipatthāna, 22
Sakas, 3, 4, 5, 6, 77, 84, 92, 157	Satpura range, 378
Sakkara, 249	Satrājita, 103
Sakuni, 11, 12, 25, 27, 120	Satrughna, 42, 124
Šakuntalā, 105	Šatruňjaya, 345
Salākā-gāhāpaka, 323	Sattabhū, 159
Śalya, 5, 27, 57, 58	Satuabili, 139 Satvats, 48
Samankara, 110	Satyavān, 6, 58
Samarkhand, 398	Satyavati, 46, 47
Samatața, 3, 263	Satyavrata, 122
Sambarana, 35	Saubhaganagara, 66
Sambastai, 97	Saudyumnas, 333
Samhitā-	Saundarananda Kāvya, 145
Bṛhat, 55, 74, 75, 85, 92, 95, 136	Saundikeras, 386
Gārgī, 37	
Kāṭhaka, 30, 98	Saungāyani, 54
Maitrāyanī, 98	Saunihotra, 104
Taittirīya, 98	Saurāstra, 380
Vājasaneyī, 31	Sauvīras, 66, 67, 84, 151, 153, 344ff.
Varāha, 91, 96	Savadhānas, 151
Yajurveda, 33	Savaras, 93, 159, 172, 399
Samhitās, Vedic, 30, 54	Savati, 2
Sammatiya school, 249	Sādhina, 43, 239
Sammatiyas, 132	Sādhyas, 19
Samprati, 200	Sāgala, 55, 57
Samudragupta, 58, 60, 62, 63, 70, 76,	Sāgaradeva, 238
81, 94, 147, 296, 383	Sāgarikā, 139
Samvarana, 24	Sākala, 54, 55, 58, 59, 71
Sanakānikas, 95. 356	Sāketa, 117, 125, 129, 132, 133, 146,
Sandaka, 149	246, 247
Sandhyākara Nandī, 334	Sākoṭavana, 247
Sañjaya, 32, 69	Śākya-pariṣad, 254
Sankaravarman, 74	Sākyarakṣita, 334
Sankassa, 41	Śākyas, 110, 128, 245 ff.
. 1	

Sālivāhana, 381	Siddhārtha, 244, 248, 250 ff.
Sāļho, 319	Sigloi, Persian, 156
Sālvajanapada, 67	Siha, 321
	Sīhā, 321
Sālvapura, 66	
Šālvas, 31, 39, 66, 67, 73	Sihapura, 47
Šālvāvayava, 67	Sikhandi, 36
Sāmagāma, 249	Šīlabhadra, 232
Sāmaśramī, Satyavrata, 1	Sīlavat, 202
Śāmba, 1	Sīlāvatī, 250
Śāntanu, 20, 24, 47	Simhapura, 159
Sāpuga, 292	Sin river, 13
Sārnāth, 115, 144	Sindhu, 10, 13, 24, 26, 30, 35, 86, 157
Sāriputta, 115, 130, 131, 148, 292	Sindhu-Pulindaka, 175
Sārvasenī, 105	Sindhu-Sauvīra, 344, 382, 389
Sāsanavamsa, 7, 13, 21	Sindhu-Sauvīras, 80, 99, 153, 344 ff.
Sāśvatas, 397	Sindhus, 174, 344
Šātakarņi, Gautamīputra, 157	Singupuram, 159
Sātavāhanas, 80, 81, 157, 165	Siprā, 379
	Sipraka, 197
Sātyaki, 6	Sirīhaṃsya, 7
Sāvattha, 129	Sirimeghavaṇṇa, 159
Sāvatthī, 109, 117, 129, 130, 131, 132,	Śiśirāyani, 74
133	
Sāvitrī, 58, 301	Šiśunāga, 140, 200
Sāyaṇa, 30	Šiśunāgas, 199
Schwanbeck, 207	Šiśupāla, 47, 48, 50
Schroeder, Von, 98	Şītā, 39, 54, 100, 119
Script, Brāhmī, 44	Sivadatta, 81
Scythians, 3	Sivapura, 68, 75, 78, 83, 84, 86
Seleucuos, 155	Sivas, 82, 83, 84
Seleukos, 206	Śivaskandavarman, 164, 166
Sembiyan, 187	Śivi, 51, 78, 84, 85
Sena dynasty, 162, 267	
Senas, 280	Sivi Ausinara, 68, 75, 84
Seniya, 200	Sivi country, 85
Serpent worship, 44	Sividas, 151
Setavya, 132	Sivis, 62, 68, 78, 83, 84, 85, 96
Setūkas, 382	Si-yu-ki, 140, 145
Seyaviya, 78	Skyrites, 282
Shah-Dheri, 15	Smith, V. A., 2, 7 ff., 15, 17, 29, 34, 41,
Shāhiya dynasty, 17	45, 52, 55, 59, 60, 62, 92, 95, et
Shah Jahan I, 343	passim
Shāma-Shāstrī, 29, 37	Soḍāsa, Mahākṣatrapa, 44
She-ki-lo, 55	Sodrai, 79, 350
Shi-shi-ch'eng, 14	Sogdiana, 282
Shor, 83	Sogdiani, 396
Shrine, see Caitya	Sogdoi, 79
Sialkot, 71	Solanki, 385
Siaura, 83	Solar dynasty, 136, 247
Sibai, 82	Soma Cult, 11
Šibipura, 83	Someśvaradeva, 53
Sibis, 68, 75, 82, 83, 84, 345	Somnath, 390, 397
Siboi, 68, 82	Son river, 88
01001, 00, 02	Don Hydi, od

4	
Sona Sātrāsāha, 31	Suketu, 49
Sonadanda, 201	Šukti, 49, 5 0
Sonestane, 86	Suktimat, 378
Sopārā, 354, 392	Śuktimatī, 47, 50
Soras, 187	Šūlakaras, 152, 385
Sorensen, 75	Šūlikas, 384, 385
Sotthivatinagara, 47	Sumana, 131
Spooner, D. B., 17	
Śrōwata zaz zas	Sumangalavilāsinī, 4, 110, et passim
Śrāvasta, 121, 130	Sumantra, 104
Śrāvastī, 108, 109, 112, 117, 121, 124,	Suṃsumāragira, 147
125, 127, 128, 129, 131 ff., 139, 146,	Suṃsumāragiri, 141
149 Scill of a	Sumsumāra Hill, 293
Srībhadrā, 327	Sunaka, 196
Śri Harsa, 162	Sunga dynasty, 38
Śrideva, 49	Śuṅga-mitra family, 141
Šrīdhara, 387	Sungas, 141
Srighanta lake, 92	Šunahśepa, 122
Śrīkshetra, 336	Sunidha, 204
Śrīmati Mahānadi river, 119	Suppāraka, 354
Śriigaverapura, 119	Suppavāsā, 292
Śrñjayas, 70	Supriya, 112
Srotasi river, 92	Ṣūrādeva, 106
Srutadevi, 87	Śūras, 63
Śrutaśravā, 48	Śūrasena, 40, 42, 56, 140
Śrutaya, 125	Śūrasenas, 39, 40, 42, 43, 66, 135
Stein, 74	Surāṣṭra, 80, 94, 99, 347 ff., 389, 398
Sten Konow, 94	Surāstras, 63, 79, 80, 159, 347 ff.
Stevenson, Mrs. Sinclair, 15, 106	Suratha, 389
Stosalas, 385	Şūrpāraka, 354, 392
Strabo, 10, 14, 86, 155, 207, 394, 396	Śūrpārakas, 354, 390
Suari, 335	Suruci, 238
Suars, 335	Surundhana, 102, 103
Subāhu, 115	Suryārakas, 354, 390
Subbhabhūmi, 275	Sūryavaņśī family, 332
Subhagiri, 170	Suśarmā, 73
Sucirata, 28	Suśarman, 197
Sudakṣiṇā, 5, 197	Susīmā, 160
Sudarśanā, 56	Suśobhanā, 49
Sudās, 30, 82	Susunia Hill, 266
Sudāsa, 123	Sūtra—
Sudassana, 102, 239	Baudhāyana Śrauta, 82, 103
Suddhodana, 125, 248 ff.	Bhagavati, 50, 60
Sudeṣṇā, 158	Gautama-Dharma, 96
Śūdras, 4, 6, 79, 350	Hasti, 113
Sudracae, 60	Kātyāyana Śrauta, 98
Sugriva, 6, 39, 54, 104, 153	Lātyāyana Śrauta, 98
Suhmas, 275	Sānkhāyana Śrauta, 103, 135
Suhmotkalas, 391	Uttarādhyayana, 4, 23, 36
Suhmettaras, 285, 391	Suttanipāta Commentary, 17, 110
Sujarakas, 388	Suvāhu, 43, 105
Sujāta, 183, 246, 247	Suvala, 11, 24
	·

Suvarnabhūmi, 131 Suvarnarekhā, 334 Suviras, 68, 78, 84 Suvrata, 68, 96 Svabhra, 389 Svapnavāsavadattā, 138, 197 Svarjit-Nāgnajita, 11 Svayambara, 48, 57, 197 Švetaketu Āruneya, 31 Swat hill, 10 Swat river, 86, 395 Syandikā, 119 Sydracae, 60 Syrakusoi, 61 Syrastrēnē, 80, 348 Syria, 80, 155

Tagara, 382 Takkhasīlā, 15 Taksaka, 27, 28 Takṣaśīlā, 9, 13, 14, 15, 16, 112, 124 Talaing, 163 Tamaras, 398 Tamasā, 119 Tamils, 168 Tamluk, 263 Tanganas, 364, 388 rapati, 24 Tapussa, 335 Taxila, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 28, 29, 45, 113, 114, 133, 314 Tālajaṅghas, 122, 392 Tāmalinda, 7 Tāmralipta, 263 Tāmraparni, 190 Tārānāth, 14 Tendukhera, 386 Te-na-ka-che-ka, 166 Tezpur Plates, 286 Thākuri family, 332 Theragāthā, 22 Therigatha Commentary, 22, 116 Thomas, F. W., 96 Thullakotthika, 22 Thullatissa, 130 Thūna, 379 Tibet, 3, 398 Tilangas, 383 Tilokasundari, 160 Tirabhukti, 311

Tiru-Vanjikkalam, 193 Tissa, 160, 169 Tissā, 253 Tissathera, 148 Tivala, 140 Tochari, 396 Tod, 50 Togara, 385 Tokeroi, 396 Tokhari, 93 Tomara, 307, 321 Toranavatthu, 133 Tosala, 385, 386 Tosalei, 386 Tosi, river, 17 Traikūtaka era, 52, 80 Trāsadasvava, 18 Trasadasyu, 18, 122 Trigarta, 394 Trigartaka Mulk, 74 Trigarttas, 62, 66, 73, 74, 75, 86, 96, Tri-Kalinga, 51, 162, 163 Trīkāndaśeşa, 145 Trilocanapāla, 17 Tripura, 399 Tripuri, 50, 399 Tripuri-visaya, 399 Triśalā, 244 Trnabindu, 299 Trogus, 155 Triśanku, 122 Trtsu-Bharatas, 18 Tukhāras, 396, 398 Tundikeras, 386, 392 Turuskas, 99 Tusāras, 396 Tushāspha, 156 Tușita heaven, 40, 143, 245, 309 Tustikāras, 386

U-cha, 336
Ucchedavādin, 143
Udaya, 110
Udaya Bhadda, 103
Udayana, 137, 138, 139, 140, 144, 148, 149, 150
Uddālaka Āruṇi, 54, 144
Udāyi Bhadda, 204, 205
Udena, 115, 135, 136
Uḍra, 333, 335
Uḍrā, 335
Udumbarapura, 355

Tiraiyar, 187

Tiru-karūr, 193

Tirhut, 311

Udumbaras, 91, 355, 397	Uttarāpatha, 6, 52, 79, 83, 92
Udumbaravati, 355	1 , , , , , , , , , , , ,
Udyāna, 84	Vacchas, 136
Uggas, 388	Vacchiputa, 141
Uggasena, 110	Vadanagara, 389
Ujjain, 94, 143, 175, 398	Vahi, 72
Ujjayini, 41, 63, 64, 65, 140	Vahinara, 137
Ujjeni, 137	Vahir-giri, 285
Ukkala, 335	Vaidarbhas, 81, 174
Ukkaṭṭhanagara, 128	Vaidehī, 241
Ulkāmukha, 247	Vaidehīputra, 138, 239
Ulumpā, 249	Vaidisas, 386
Umavarman, 161	Vaijayantipura, 382
	Vaikarņa people, 30
Upacara, 47	Vaikkarai, 193
Upa-giri, 285	
Upakamsa, 43	Vaiśālī, 36, 202, 304, 388
Upāli, 116, 249, 254	Vaišikyas, 159
Upamanyu, I	Vaitaranī river, 159, 336
Upamaśravas, 18	Vajjī, 135, 388
Upaniṣad—	Vajrayāna-Buddhism, 400
Brhadāranyaka, 31, 103	Vajranābha, 42
Chändogya, 11, 20, 31, 77	Vaka-Dālbhya, 31
Jaiminīya, 31	Valabhi, 64, 65
Kausītakī, 31, 68, 103	Valavan, 187
Upaplavya, 105	Valhīka, 70
Uparicara, 46, 49, 50	Vamsa, 50
Uparicara Vasu, 46, 47, 144	Vamśadharā river, 159
Upasāgara, 43	Vanisas, 135, 136, 143
Uragapura, 186, 188	Vanamāla, 286
Uraiyūr, 186	Vanavāsakas, 382
Urjas, 92	Vanavāsī, 382
Urn, 288	Vanga, 26, 158, 162, 263, 387
Urṇadeśa, 399	Vangas, 158, 263, 387
Urnas, 399	Vangeyas, 387
Urudhammarakkhita, 149	Vanka, 109
Uruvelā, 114, 335	Vańkapabbata, 51
Usasti Cākrāyana, 20	Vańkṣū, 4
Uṣavadāta, 63	Vapusmān, 49
Usinara, 68, 69, 75, 78, 82, 84, 96	Varāhamihira, 55, 85, 198
Uśinaragiri, 69	Varahotra, 393
Usīraddhaja, 69	Varanā, 102
Usīragiri, 69	Varanāvatī, 102
Utanka, Rsi, 121	Varendra, 336
Utkala, 161, 162, 333	Varņāśā, 379
Utkaladeśa, 334	Varsakāra, 204
Utkalas, 89, 333, 335	Varuna, 122
Utkalavisaya, 334	Vaśa Aśvya, 135
U-to-yen-na, 140	Vasas, 19, 68, 84, 135
Uttamabhadras, 63, 90, 91, 394	Vasātis, 84
Uttaradvīpa, 22	
Uttara-Kuru, 21, 23, 56	Vaśiṣṭha, 6, 24, 104, 122, 196 Vassa, 335
Uttara-Madhurā, 43	Vassalzāra and ann ann
Uttara-Pañcāla, 32, 33, 34, 36, 47	Vassakāra, 204, 329, 330
1 411-6414, 32, 33, 34, 30, 47	Vasu, 46, 47, 49, 50, 89, 145

	• •
Vasubandhu, 13, 132	Videha Māthava, 235
Vasuvaites IFF	Videhadattā, 239
Vasumitra, 157	Videhas, 117, 225 ff.
Vasudeva, 25, 26, 48	Videnas, 117, 225 ii. Vidhūrapaņdita, 29
Vatika, 125	Vidisā, 140, 141, 386
Vatsa, 40, 50, 103, 109, 137, 138, 140,	
141, 143 ff., 149	Viḍūḍabha, 249, 256, 288
Vatsapaṭṭana, 145	Vihalla, 202
Vattagāmani, 169	Vijaya, 170
Vatuka, 169	Vijayabāhu I, 160
Vāhīkas, 71, 72	Vijayapura, 7
Vählikas, 70, 77, 79, 151	Vijayasena, 162
Vāji-Vāsikas, 382	Vijitanagara, 169
Vālhi, 71	Vijitapura, 169
Vālhīka, 70, 71	Vikrama era, 63
Vālika, 123	Vikramāditya, 131
Vānagarh, 7	Vikramaśilā, 232, 233
Vārānasī, 102	Vikukṣi, 120, 121
Vārtāśāstropajīvin, 4	Vimala-Kondañña, 202, 328
Vārttikas, 71	Vimānavatthu Commentary, 41
Vāsabhakhattiyā, 251, 252 ff.	Vimativinodani (Vinaya Commentary),
Vāsabhagāma, 114	168
Vāsavadattā, 138, 141	Vinasana, 350
Vāśiṣṭha Sātyahavya, 21	Vinata, 104
Vāsuladattā, 138, 139, 141	Vinatāśva, 333
Vāsudeva, 41, 43, 44, 86, 87, 105, 158	Vinda, 337
Vāṭadhāna-dvijas, 151	Vindhya-Mauleyas, 393
Vāṭadhānas, 79, 151	Vindhyamūlikas, 393
Vātsyāyana, 64	Vindhya-pusikas, 393
Veda—	Vindhyas, 174
Atharva, 19, 102, et passim	Vipāśā, 72, 91
Rg, 30, 32, 39, 68, 82, 84, et passim	Vipracitti, 199
Sāma, 19, 20, 54, et passim.	Vira, 131
Vedabbha, 51	Vīrahotras, 393
Vedagarbhapuri, 88	Virāṭa, 25, 66, 87, 105
Vedasmṛta, 379	Virāṭanagara, 39
Vedasmrti, 379	Visākhā, 36, 130
Vedaśruti, 119	Viśākhadatta, 289
Vehalla, 202	Viśākhavarman, 161
Vejayanti, 383	Viśālā, 237
Vellār, 186	Visayha, 113
Veļusumano, 169	Vișnudharmottara Mahāpurāna, 50
Venāgapura, 129	Vișnukundin, 162, 165
Venkatagiri, 186	Vişnuvardhana, 380
Ventivana, 225	Vissasena, 110
Vessabhu, 387	Viśvadeva, 141
Vessantara, 51	Viśvāmitra, 237, 355, 397
Vethadīpa, 290	Vitahavyas, 104, 393
Vetravati, 386	Vitaratha, 49
Vibhāsaśāstra, 131	Vitihotras, 392, 393
Vicitravīrya, 24, 25, 105	Vivakşu, 130
Vidarbha, 49, 100, 123, 174, 389	Vogel, J. Ph., 17
Videgha Māthava, 235	Vohārikas, 325
Videha, 17, 20, 26, 31, 84, 131, 138, 235	Vrajamaṇḍala, 336
1 mina, 1/, 20, 20, 31, 04, 131, 130, 235	· rajamanipara, 550

Vrātya, 195 Vrddhaśarman, 87 Vrhadisu, 32 Vrṣabha, 196 Vrṣabhapura, 196 Vrṣadarbhas, 68, 78, 84 Vrṣṇikas, 390 Vrṣṇis, 27, 42 Vyāghrasena, 81

War of the ten kings, 82 Warangal, 51 Watters, 41, 59, 90, 102 Weber, 31, 33, 60, 65, 98, 235 Whitehead, 16 Wilford, Col., 96 Whitney, 303 Wilson, 10, 14, 18, 30, 79, 86, 100 Wu-t'u, 336

Xandrammes, 160

Yadu, 11, 39, 105 Yadus, 35, 39 Yajñaśrī Sātakarņī, 81 Yajurveda, White, 19 Yama, 246 Yamī, 246 Yamunā, 91, 146 Yasa, 148 Yasadatta, 13

Yaśodhara, 251 Yaudheya, 68, 75, 76, 95 Yaudheyas, 55, 63, 68, 73, 75, 76, 78, 90, 91, 95, 96, 397 Yaudheyavāra, 76 Yaunas, 92, 153 Yavana, 54, 153, 154, 155 Yavanānī, 154 Yavanas, 3, 4, 6, 7, 35, 84, 86, 153, 155, 156, 157, 170, 398 Yavinara, 32 Yayāti, 11, 12, 21, 24, 47, 103 Yādava, 47, 48, 89 Yādava tribe, 391 Yādavas, 25, 80, 87, 390 Yājñavalkya, 54, 124, 236 Yāska, 1, 2, 20, 98 Yogācāra, 13 Yonakas, 55 Yonas, 153, 154, 155, 156 Yuan Chwang, 90 Yudhisthira, 2, 6, 25, 27, 29, 42, 48, 57, 73, 75, 76, 95, 96, 105, 119, 120, 136 Yue-chi, 304 Yugandhara, 67 Yule, 175 Yuvanāśva, 121 Zeus, 154

Zimmer, 1, 21, 30, 33, 54, 68